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ABSTRACT

This publication focuses on in-service education for rural teachers who are remote from universities or other training centers. Section 1 consists of three models for in-service programs presented at a writing conference by Lawrence Heldman, Edward Krahmer, and Lionel Orlikow. The models include specifications for a national organization to serve rural teachers' needs, the design of an individualized in-service program, and a voucher system. Section 2 offers the viewpoints of other conference attendants on implementing the models. Their considerations encompass power factors and the reluctant learner. In section 3, currently operating rural in-service teacher education programs are described. The programs have two characteristics in common. They serve large numbers of remotely based teachers (often in a wide geographic area) and the programs are brought to the teachers at the local sites. The publication also includes an introductory paper on today's schools, appendices with background information on rural America, a bibliography, and a summary of the proposal to the U.S. Office of Education which initiated this project. (Author)

IN-SERVICE EDUCATION FOR RURAL SCHOOL PERSONNEL

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FOREWORD

Overwhelming emphasis on urban problems has resulted in rural Americans being among the forgotten people of recent years. While solving urban crises is imperative, rural America must receive its share of continuing attention and resources. Rural Americans number tens of millions, are indispensible to the total well-being of the nation, and are a supplier of new urban and suburban citizens. Improving education is a key way to build quality rural life and significantly contribute quality citizens beyond rural areas. The kinds of educational personnel who begin and continue to teach in rural areas are a critical factor in creating quality life.

The specific focus of this publication is in-service education for remotely based rural teachers. Naturally, much of the content is applicable to education and rural education at large. Attention is given to remotely based teachers in the belief that they are neglected more than personnel in other areas.

A writing conference to create part of this publication was convened September 24-27, 1972 in Grand Forks, North Dakota, by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education, with funding provided by Central ERIC, National Center for Educational Communications, U.S. Office of Education. The group included educators from the collegiate, public school, and state education spheres. Largely American, the group also included two Canadians. There were formal presentations, spirited discussions about the papers and other pertinent topics, and writing and rewriting activities.

Section III was derived from reports of existing in-service programs and from a computerized search of the ERIC data base. This adds a practical dimension to the models. Bibliographic and appendix materials are added.

This publication is a pragmatic combination of the abstract and concrete. Models are included to provide a comprehensive idea base, unencumbered by questions about feasibility, the politics of education, and other implementation questions. Alternative total plans for achieving stated goals can be studied in the models. Pragmatic questions can be studied in reference to the models' conceptualization of in-service education.

This publication is part of a project entitled *A Proposal to Produce a Guidebook to Remote In-Service Teacher Education Programs in Rural Areas*, one of a series of activities funded under "miniproposal" arrangements for the ERIC Clearinghouse during the 1972-73 funding year. The purpose of this funding is to enable ERIC Clearinghouses to conduct projects in sufficient depth and breadth to create broadly useful publications on high priority topics. They are useful supplements to other ERIC-generated monographs, bibliographies, directories, and articles which add to the idea and information base necessary for building a better education.

Acknowledgements are difficult to provide fairly when so many persons were generous with their time and resources. The model developers spent many hours before the writing conference and willingly incorporated critical input to refine their models. The Clearinghouse received valuable assistance from Edward Krahmer, who hosted the North Dakota Conference, and Clyde Morris, who helped edit the conference materials. (Both are identified by title in the participants list.) Kent Horne of the Resource Information Center deserves mention for his efforts in securing facilities for the writers' conference, and the assistance of Irene Wagner, secretary to Dr. Krahmer, was valuable.

Viewpoints expressed in this document are published to stimulate thought, study, and experimentation to improve the quality of education and thereby life of rural America. Publication does not necessarily constitute endorsement of the ERIC system, Clearinghouse sponsors, or the National Institute of Education (now the federal funding agent for ERIC).

You may do further research on this topic by checking issues of *Research in Education* (RIE) and *Current Index to Journals in Education* (CIJE). Both RIE and CIJE use the same descriptors (index terms). Documents in RIE are listed in blocks according to the clearinghouse code letters which processed them, beginning with the ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult Education (AC). The clearinghouse code letters, which are listed at the beginning of RIE, appear opposite the ED number at the beginning of each entry. "SP" (School Personnel) designates documents processed by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education.

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--Joel L. Burdin, Director
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February 1973

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This publication focuses on in-service education for rural teachers who are remote from universities or other training centers. Section 1 consists of three models for in-service programs presented at a writing conference by Lawrence Heldman, Edward Krahmer, and Lionel Orlikow. The models include specifications for a national organization to serve rural teachers' needs, the design of an individualized in-service program, and a voucher system. Section 2 offers the viewpoints of other conference attendents on implementing the models. Their considerations encompass power factors and the reluctant learner. In section 3, currently operating rural in-service teacher education programs are described. The programs have two characteristics in common. They serve large numbers of remotely based teachers (often in a wide geographic area) and the programs are brought to the teachers at the local sites. The publication also includes an introductory paper on today's schools, appendices with background information on rural America, a bibliography, and a summary of the proposal to the U.S. Office of Education which initiated this project.

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TOPIC: *In-Service Education for Rural School Personnel*

DESCRIPTORS TO USE IN CONTINUING SEARCH OF RIE AND CIJE:

Inservice Teacher Education
Rural Extension
Rural Education
Rural Schools
Rural School Systems
Extension Education
Mobile Educational Services

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INTRODUCTION: TODAY'S SCHOOLS

Chester Hausken

INTRODUCTION

You don't have to search very far in today's literature to find someone who is writing about the problems of our schools in today's society. A brief survey of current magazines or books on education will reveal almost any problem imaginable. This is not, however, a phenomenon true of only the schools. Other institutions of our society are also being questioned as to their relevance and contribution to the good life and benefits to people or institutions. The ever increasing complexity of communications, travel, waste disposal, and international relations are intensifying daily--not on an arithmetic scale, but on a geometric scale. To state it differently, as we get to know more about each aspect of society that contributes to its growth or destruction, and as the numbers of people increase rapidly, the interaction of the discoveries, knowledge, and numbers of people are enough to make the most complex computer network system churn to a halt. Add to this complex system the intricate moral value structures of different political, religious, fraternal, and social groups and you almost begin to conclude that if your goal is to bring about orderly change in any one aspect of the system, whether it be institution-, human-, or machine-oriented, you are either naive or an extreme optimist as to the chances of success.

Recently much has been written about piecemeal change in affecting a school, plant, hospital, or social group. Elizabeth Wilson, in her article *Can the School Become a Center of Inquiry?* reviewed the last 50 years of reform movements and found astonishingly small impact. She asserts that reform of education requires the systematic changing of the entire institution. Further, she says that we do not have gaps in our knowledge of the techniques of change; however, our problems are not so much ones of technology as they are problems of politics--the social matrix which does not support change and even makes it desperately difficult.

To illustrate briefly the array of problems related to schools, desegration has caused severe reactions in many states. In the southeast, middle- and upper-class whites are setting up their own private elementary and secondary schools. The public schools are becoming schools for the blacks. In the northeast, drugs, vandalism, and financial problems have almost made it necessary to close many schools. In the midwest, a fleet of school buses was destroyed in protest to busing.

Each of these problems is being faced by the people who have the responsibility to solve the problem or by citizens who organize and develop methods to confront the problems.

This brief introduction was not intended to present a situation so bleak that no development effort would be attempted. We can isolate specific problems and chart a course of action to develop products or processes which will provide possible actions toward solution.

PROBLEM IDENTIFICATION

In the past 25 years, American education has become more recognized for what it is: an extremely complicated process. In the last decade we have witnessed parents, school personnel, foundations, and many commissions and committees reporting and validating the necessity that rural schools and communities must undergo significant changes in order to survive as viable institutions of our society. Out of these concerns come such questions as How should we teach science in grade 5? Should girls be allowed to attend all-boy technical schools? Should we teach sex education in public schools? Should property taxes support schools? Should we have non-graded schools? Is compulsory schooling against the law? They demand answers.

Answers to some of these questions have brought about changes in our schools because the questions demanded answers. Yet the fact remains that none of the answers, in terms of practices, has been successful in its primary role of bringing about significant change in our educational system. And, more important, when a project school appears to be making significant changes, so little is understood about why they were successful that the efforts at replication are dramatically unsuccessful in achieving similar results.

It seems obvious that the real genesis of the problems we face in creating pleasant and efficient atmospheres for learning lies in our basic assumptions about human nature motivation, how people learn the meaning and purpose of education, and interpersonal influence and conflict that are made by the people who most affect the school--teachers, administrators, board members, and parents, in the order of the degree of direct effect on the students. It is painfully obvious in the natural sciences that ignoring basic assumptions leads to bridges that fall, cars that fall apart, or buildings that are unsafe. Similar educational improvements or changes that fail to consider fundamental underlying assumptions will result in programs that are ineffective, incomplete, and cast aside after it is found they do not "do the job."

There is another order of questions that we must face which demand an even harder look at a set of basic assumptions and these relate to such questions as Is compulsory education a factor which contributes to the strength of our society or will it contribute most to our eventual downfall? and Should the schools be a center of change or must society change the schools?

It is the contention of this paper that teachers face an incredibly divergent set of problems as they face 40 to 200 students each day for 180 consecutive days: each student has specific needs, desires, and wants, and each comes from extremely divergent home environments.

It seems apparent that the pre- and in-service preparation of teachers should be an important research and development priority. It seems especially important in the rural schools because of the unique circumstances surrounding education in rural areas.

The graduates of rural schools must be prepared for occupations that are largely rural-oriented if they remain in the rural area. If they do not remain in rural areas, they must be prepared for occupations in our towns and cities. If they choose to further their education, they must then be prepared for college.

Numerous studies have tended to show that the rural school has not been meeting this challenge successfully. Studies since 1945 to the present all have concluded that the groups with rural backgrounds had far less successful occupational achievement patterns than their urban-reared counterparts.

The perceptions of the teacher regarding both his role as teacher and the roles of the children and school become acutely important if socio-culturally deprived rural children are exposed to a poorly staffed, ill-equipped, necessarily existant rural school. It is here that the teacher's native abilities, the cultivation of his capacities in the art of teaching, and his general and specialized education become important issues. These taken together are the chief determinants of the kind and character of education available through the schools. They should be a matter of primary concern and responsibility for teacher education institutions, both pre- and in-service.

Few teachers joining the staff of rural schools, however, have had anything in their preservice background which prepared them for the special problems of the rural community. Typically, they are isolated from professional supervision and help. This isolation often causes the teacher to reject the rural life.

All of the available evidence indicates that the small rural schools are here to stay. To operate these schools effectively, specially trained teachers are needed. Evidence regarding the specialized training of rural teachers is lacking, however. Furthermore, no substantial evidence exists concerning the nature of the specialized demands placed on rural teachers both for pre- and in-service training needs.

The rural communities seem to have certain inherent problems which most teachers are not prepared to meet and handle successfully. Evidence regarding the important but neglected part adequate teacher preparation plays in the rural school has been expressed at many rural education conferences, but little empirical data exists on which to base a training program. At the Rural Education Conference in Oklahoma in 1967 Marty Cushman stated

> The rural areas of the nation have had a disproportionate share of the teachers whose educational qualifications were below standard....It is a fact long well known and unfortunately accepted that rural school personnel, by comparison with corresponding urban personnel, have been badly underprepared.

At the same conference, Jane Franseth said that rural teachers need a special preparation which virtually no colleges give today. These teachers must be able to develop positive self-concepts among the rural children. They must be able to bring cultural opportunities to the rural community and to take an active, leading part in community activities.

The significance of developing pre- and in-service programs is emphasized by the Department of Rural Education of the National Education Association, which stated

> Competent and well-qualified teachers, administrators and other professional personnel are equally essential for all children, youth, and adults. To obtain such a staff, it is of prime importance that there be continued re-evaluation of teacher preparation, both preservice and in-service, focused on the unique aspects of preparing teachers, teachers of teachers, supervisors, and other educational specialists and administrators for rural and rural-related schools. Such evaluation is mandatory in meeting the objective of quality and quantity education.[1]

The same organization also emphasized the importance of rural education in the newly emerging nations of the world. It pointed out that in many instances the responsibility of setting up programs and training teachers in these countries will fall on American educators. This could be the salvation of democracy, since it would involve over a billion and a half people who lived in rural areas, representing two-thirds of the population of the world.

In October 1967 at the meeting of the Department of Rural Education and the Division of County and Intermediate Unit Superintendents of the National Education Association, a joint resolution was passed that adequate staffing of schools across the nation continued to be of concern. The Department of Rural Education felt it important to direct attention to the encouragement of teacher enlistment and teacher preparation designed to further meet the needs of public education.

Clearly, the suitability of present teacher preservice and in-service training programs for rural teachers is being questioned. Teacher training institutions and certification agencies tend to regard the preparation of rural school teachers as no different from that required for other teachers. Individuals who are close to this field of teaching tend to believe that there are important differences between rural and urban teaching and that

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[1] National Education Association. Department of Rural Education. "The Platform" (Washington, D.C.: The Department, 1967)

programs need to be designed to meet the special requirements. It is obvious, however, that the research base for determining the specifications for such programs is rather incomplete.

Nevertheless, we know some of the reasons why the current public school model puts disadvantaged students at an even greater disadvantage. We also know certain criteria which must be considered in developing programs which will benefit rural children as well as the advantaged.

PUBLIC SCHOOL MODEL

It is necessary to discuss briefly the inherent reasons why the public school system does not deal very well with *all* students, but especially students and teachers who are disadvantaged. It is obvious that significant resources ($70 billion in 1972) are being sent on education in the U.S. It is strange why in spite of the resources and well-intentioned efforts, the schools have not been more successful. Robert Meeker of Harvard University, in a mimeographed article (not dated or published) provided a series of reasons why the current familiar model of public schooling (grade by grade promotion, self-contained classroom, grade point average, primary-intermediate-secondary, two or three track) has not been more successful, especially with disadvantaged students. As an educational system, the current public school model is distinguished by the following characteristics:

Molar Management

The system achieves significant economies by managing in fairly sizable units of people and time: education is managed by groups and people and time: curriculum is managed by groups and stages. This implies certain consequences. most significantly, that individuals get absorbed into groups and that curriculum steps get absorbed into stages. The coin of the system is an average--a school average, a class average, an individual average. It is the class average or the individual average that moves to successive grades; instruction is pitched to the average, but the disadvantaged is likely to be below average. Records are averages, so areas of greatest deficiency are absorbed. Those students with informal education support may recoup these deficiencies; those who must rely exclusively on the schools are at a disadvantage. In all, the management system is probably near optimal efficiency for achieving a performance average, but optimizing average performance is bound to penalize those who are below average.

Symbolic Reward System

The public schools rely almost exclusively on symbolic rewards. At best, the system of rewards becomes internalized; at worst, it is nearly stupid. Of course, any reward system can be learned, can be internalized, and can be made effective, but the chances of this occuring are minimized without at least intermittent reinforcement. If the reinforcement is gratuitous, it will not shape the desired behavior. The disadvantaged student is less likely to have internalized a symbolic reward system before he enters school and is least likely to be properly reinforced (since he is least likely to perform well). In all, an exclusively symbolic reward system militates against the disadvantaged.

Comparative Evaluation

Almost all assessments or evaluations in the system are comparative (technically, normative) in character, either at the class level, state level, or (it's coming) the national level. There is both a direct and indirect effect on the individual who is below average. The direct effect is that he is labeled "below average" which sets up expectations both for himself and for others. The indirect effect results from an interaction with the averaging of molar management; the below average are, realistically, bad bets educationally if the criterion is average performance. With fixed resources, a manager would always do better to spend time, effort, and money on the above-average, since they will yield more growth for resource spent than those below average. On both counts, the disadvantaged student is penalized: he is likely to be below average, but with less self-esteem he is most adversely affected by being so labeled; and, being below average, he is least able to advance the average, so unless the system violates its own utilities, he will receive less of the available resources. The situation is not altered even in school where the majority are disadvantaged (Title I impact schools). The mean shifts, but the relationships obtain.

Black-box Operations

The operations procedures of the current system seem very natural because they are simply an extension of a historical trend: tutor to dame school, dame school to one room school, and one room school to self-contained classroom. But viewed from a management perspective, it is an antiquated system of black-box operations. The classroom is, of course, the black box: students go in, and, 9 months later, they come out. The greater evidence of what goes on in the interim is anecdotal (incidental reports, teacher-room conversations, or an occasional supervisory observation). This is, obviously, one of the greatest impediments to improving the system, but here we are concerned with the immediate effects on students and, more particularly, on the disadvantaged. Since almost every aspect of operations is vested in the teacher--operations implementation, operations control, operations monitoring, and even aspects of operations design--the system is highly dependent on personnel, and, due to the nature of the process, it unusually dependent on interpersonal interactions. The teacher is predisposed, by background and training, to have attitudes and perspectives that do not match those of disadvantaged students--the two are not in concert. Some teachers overcome this, but many do not. And, due to another aspect of operations, the relationship sustains for 9 months, no matter what its quality. It is a relationship about which the system has little knowledge and over which the student can exercise very little positive control. The disadvantaged student--anti-intellectual, inflexible in beliefs, traditional and superstitious in judgment, functionally motivated, and less drawn to symbolic rewards--does not match up well with the teacher. If the teacher is not sensitive to the mismatch and is not willing to make an adjustment, then the black box will function badly. (To anticipate a little, I would not advocate a retreading of teachers; I would advocate the elimination of the black box which permits the mismatched teachers to have the effect.)

Formal Academic Orientation

The present system relies almost exclusively on one paradigm of instruction: formal, academic training. It *is* the most efficient, and usually the most effective, mode of education--if there are identifiable facts or generalizations to be learned or if the activity being exercised is intellectual in nature. These are important qualifications because they exclude the area of practical education. In other words, formal academic training seems to be an efficient and effective means of teaching math, science, geography, history, social science, etc., and of training intellectual skills like analysis, observation, reporting, etc., but it is not well suited to such skills as judgment, decision making, task definition, etc. Thus, when the educational establishment is told that disadvantaged students lack practical judgment, self-direction, self-reliance, self-esteem--the whole constellation of practical skills and practical personal abilities--it is virtually impossible for the system to react. Formal academic training is not effective for the teaching of these skills and the development of these abilities. Experience, under the appropriate conditions, is the best method, but the creation and management of the appropriate conditions is a demanding and (to the schools) a foreign task. "Learning by doing," role playing, and simulation are half-way methods--better than formal training--but no substitute for a situation in which the time-frame and the consequences of decisions are real. Because the task is difficult, and the goals are secondary to strictly academic objectives, the development of practical judgment has rarely been an explicit concern of the schools. Those students who have first-hand, or even vicarious, access to a practical education, outside the schools, will have an advantage over those who do not.

Informalism

Most of the school system's organization, operation, and procedure is informal. The popular image of the schools as highly codified comes from reports like *Up the Down Staircase* and other records of petty regulation. The proliferation of rules is undeniable, but almost all of these rules relate not to substantitive procedures, operations, and organization but to control, i.e., regulation of behavior. The important areas characterized by informalism are school career options; avenues of redress; organization of the school and its relationship to the district, city, and state (never, to my knowledge, included in civics classes); the evaluation system (not only for the student but for the school as well); options and policies relating to attendance, grouping, transportation, special programs, etc.--in short, almost every important aspect of school know-how.

Informalism works to the detriment of those who do not understand the informal relationships and/or do not have access to informal controls. Formalism is usually viewed as the mechanism of authoratarianism, but ironically authoritarianism, favoritism, cronyism, and the other "isms" of priviledge are least constrained in a non-formal context. An example:

district budgets are carefully regulated (budgeting inequities would be cause for litigation), but it would be naive to think that inequities in expenditure do not occur. They occur because the parents from the X-side schools have greater access than the parents from the Y-side schools to those who control discretionary spending. Another example: de jure segregation is much easier to identify and correct than de facto segregation. In sum, everyone suffers from bad regulation, but those out of informal power or out of contact will suffer differentially from non-regulated abuses, intended or not. And differential abuse carries an additional message--it adds insult to injury.

CRITERION FOR TEACHER IN-SERVICE

Any teacher in-service program which will enable rural teachers to grow in their competencies to engage students in productive learning experiences must be based on certain assumptions that have been rationally derived from the teaching behaviors or actions by which a teacher establishes and maintains the four conditions essential to any productive learning environment. These conditions follow.

1. The person is doing something to satisfy an objective that is important to him;

2. He is doing it in a real situation, to real things, on a for-keeps basis;

3. The person acts overtly and verbalizes in response to, or as a result of, overt actions; and

4. What he does involves a full cycle of behavior:

   -Perceiving,
   -Thinking and conceptual organizing,
   -Choosing a goal and a line of response,
   -Carrying out his choice and thus precipitating a consequence, and
   -Being affected by the consequence and re-entering the cycle by perceiving some or all of those consequences.

The teaching behaviors necessary to the creation of these conditions for learners, which should lead to the derivation of objectives of a teacher in-service program, have been identified by Woodruff as follows:

Engaging students in life-relevant, want-satisfying learning tasks

In this role the teacher behaves toward students much as the community change agent behaves toward the community he is seeking to help. Through the use of exploratory activities, student interest in his environment and the nature of his transactions with it is stimulated. Teachers plan with students a wide variety of such engagements through which each student is encouraged t:

investigate further a concern or an interest that was generated as a result of the exploratory experience. A file of exploratory paths then permits students to investigate further these areas of interest (or concerns) until the student finds something he wants to construct, carry out, learn about, or influence. He is then helped by his teacher to plan a project, identify and secure the needed resources, and carry out his project to its appropriate conclusion.

To perform effectively in this role, teachers need familiarity with the nature of each step in the decision-making process and skill in encouraging participation, helping students acquire needed process skills, and competence in re-enforcing active, responsible participation on the part of individual students.

Eliciting responses to the tasks that increase perception, build concepts and encourage decision making

This consists of the use of influence devices which emanate largely from the environment with which students are interacting, and which elicit from them such responses as perception, thinking, making decisions, executing decisions, and perceiving the consequences of their responses. When the teacher steps between the learner and his interactive environment and in place of those environmental influences dispenses verbal information of various kinds or uses response-control devices on students, he engages the student in a student-teacher interaction rather than a student-environment interaction. This not only interferes with natural learning but usually produces one or more inappropriate reactions from learners, ranging from meaningless verbalistic behavior to antagonistic resistance.

Maintaining a climate which enhances commitment

The climate for learning in a school is a function of five social factors: good interpersonal relations, contagious vitality of teachers toward both learning and children, diagnostic and remedial attention to each student, continual reinforcement by the teacher of productive student behavior, and individual and institutional commitment to student learning. All factors relating to climate are important to effective student learning, but commitment is, perhaps, the most critical. The atmosphere of commitment is that which suggests that all resources of the institution--human as well as material--are dedicated to support and encourage positive self-actualizing student activity.

Maintaining a verbal and conceptual balance in the use of verbal communication with students

In short, behavior can be changed most effectively when students do more and more of the talking, when they are talking about what they know conceptually, and when any verbal information they obtain is intimately related to the concepts they are acquiring and is necessary to the thoughtful use of those

concepts in making decisions. Under the opposite conditions, verbal activity can destroy thinking, interfere with conceptual activity, degenerate to laborious memorization of information, and swing back to a teacher-dominated ratio with passive and bored students.

Any in-service education program should keep in mind that these conditions are met as specifications for the system. It is also apparent that the current model of public education is not in concert with these specifications. It can also be said that similar conditions must be generated for other parts of the system (the support agencies, the community, the school as an institution, and the home-family) in order for significant things to happen to increase the chances of success for programs designed to improve rural education.

SUMMARY

People who have written about teaching in rural areas agree that specially designed programs are needed. However, it is obvious after searching the literature that the research base for determining the specifications for such programs is rather incomplete. Nevertheless, it can be said with some validity that we know some of the inherent reasons why the current public school model is having problems and also with a great deal of assurance some basic criteria that must be taken into consideration if a program is to be developed.

SECTION 1: MODELS OF IN-SERVICE PROGRAMS FOR REMOTELY BASED RURAL TEACHERS

Education advances in faulting steps along a path comprised of research, development, evaluation, and dissemination. Eventually the products of research and experimentation filter down to a level of awareness that practical benefits might be derived from the research findings. At the initial stage in the process of development, the creative talents of educators are called upon to prepare one or more models based upon the research. Such models reflect approaches to a problem not yet implemented in practice.

The contents of this section include descriptions of three models for meeting the in-service needs of remotely based rural teachers. No direct relationships of any model to existing in-service programs were noted by the writing conference participants. Ideally these models will stimulate additional creative input and, ultimately, funding for the development of one or more models in practice.

In-Service Education for School Personnel in Remote Rural Areas

Lawrence Heldman

In-Service Education For School Personnel In Remote Rural Areas

INTRODUCTION

The reasons are many and varied for being concerned about in-service education for rural school personnel. They have educational needs and interests that are as great and as diversified as those of their students. Teacher skills have to be updated, new practices have to be learned, and some practices should be discarded. Content in many teaching areas needs to be reviewed and updated. New ideas and concepts relating to ways children learn are being developed and need to be brought to the attention of the teacher. Moreover, every teacher's individual educational needs and interests must be diagnosed and assigned a priority.

There have been recent rapid changes in the roles of the teacher and the school, as perceived by the community, the student, and the teacher. The following factors are prominent among the many that have affected this perception:

- *In loco parentis*
- Due process...student rights
- Patriotism
- Corporal punishment
- Sex (health) education
- Prayer in the school
- Aid to non-public schools
- Drug abuse
- Community involvement in schools
- Academic freedom
- Financial problems of government
- Improved teacher salaries
- Control of the curriculum
- Underground newspapers
- Integration and busing
- Labor unions
- Financial bind in which the taxpayer finds himself
- Financial liability of school districts for the action of their employees

Although the list is far from complete, it should serve to illustrate the complexity and controversial nature of the factors. It becomes increasingly important that the school staff and the lay community prepare for change by becoming informed about the issues before they become part of the issues. In many instances, remote rural communities feel the impact of these change factors later than do their urban and suburban counterparts. However, when an issue, like any of the above, descends on a small community, a greater percentage of the population is apt to become involved (if not informed) on a very personal level.

Student life-goals are in the process of rapid change. Changing attitudes among the young toward society and societal systems have caused

anxieties on both sides of age 30. Changes in the voting age, the attitude toward youth sharing in the decision-making processes, etc. have reached all corners of this country and well beyond. A general recognition of youth's demands (by governments and society) is having an impact on relationships that were once taken for granted. Junior high schools, high schools, and colleges have witnessed increasing changes in the status quo.

In-service education for school personnel in remote rural areas poses some special problems that deserve consideration. Among the most obvious considerations are a low density of population, long distances between schools and supplementary centers, poor roads (often under severe weather conditions), and fewer communication devices than in urban areas. Rural teachers have fewer peer contacts and fewer models to observe and emulate. For example, the more remote the school district and the smaller the staff, the greater the need among teachers to share ideas, observe others, and, in general, take advantage of formal and informal in-service opportunities.[1] Rural districts often lack sufficient supervisory staff to tackle the problems related to teacher in-service education. Intermediate districts often try to fill the in-service needs on a traditional basis, and they run into the problems of distance and low density of population mentioned above.

Rural school districts exist in all 50 states. The teachers in these districts have many problems in common and yet their needs often go unnoticed at the national level and in many instances at the state level. Rural school districts lack a recognized unifying organization to bring attention to their specific needs. Although there are many centers for urban education there is not one for rural education.

A teacher in a rural school, particularly at the secondary level, often is faced with multiple assignments. A school with 250 students, K-12, will probably have one science teacher for grades 7-12. He would be expected to teach the general sciences, chemistry, physics, earth science, biology, and perhaps health. In all probability, he will not have what the suburban teacher would consider a laboratory. A local rural school administrator, looking for a music teacher, describes his problem this way: "We need someone to teach vocal music, K-12 (two buildings) and instrumental music from the sixth grade up; work with and develop a chorus, marching band, and orchestra; coach the cheerleaders; and provide supervision of the band for two firemen's parades in the summer." In some cases the multiple assignments are at least in the same discipline, while in other cases the teachers are called upon to teach part of the day in an area for which they are untrained.

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[1] A foreign language teacher in a small rural high school will probably not have anyone with whom to speak the second language except the students in class. In the urban district, there would be other language teachers as well as the possibility of native speakers or university instructors.

Small rural districts generally lack the professional staff needed to prepare extensive proposals for state and federal grants. Larger districts often assign one or more central office people to locate grant possibilities, prepare the proposals, and then implement them. The administrator in the small school with all his other obligations, might not have time to do more than prepare the simpler Titles I and II grant requests.

Finally, the per teacher cost of operating traditional in-service programs in rural small schools is proportionally higher than in neighborhood suburban schools.

IN-SERVICE ALTERNATIVES

There are a number of existing alternatives for the implementation of in-service opportunities. Traditional approaches include workshops, university programs (with or without credit), conferences, faculty meetings, and locally sponsored programs occurring on a somewhat regular basis that may include salary incentives. These opportunities often occur after the normal closing of the school day (i.e., afternoon and evening), on weekends, and during summers. On occasion, students are dismissed early, or school is closed for the day, for the purpose of holding a workshop or making a pre-arranged visitation. Some local in-service programs involve more than one district. To what extent these approaches actually satisfy individual teacher needs is questionable.

The independent study approach follows formal and informal designs. The formal design often includes counseling or professional monitoring and evaluation. The informal design parallels the story of the lawyer who defends himself in court. The teacher who sets out to design and implement a self-help project may end up reinventing the wheel and, at that, it might not fit the vehicle. The point is that most of these informal attempts go unnoticed because no one else is involved. A well-designed independent study approach is quite suitable for the teacher in the small remote rural school.

Canned or commercially developed programs for training teachers. students, and other school personnel are becoming more available. Industry and the military have used this type of approach for some time. Universities, educational laboratories, and other institutions, as well as industry, have prepared packages on the paper-and-pencil level as well as more sophisticated systems requiring a multi-media approach. The programs are designed for individuals and groups.

A continuing in-service program is often part of community involvment in studying educational needs and planning for change. A representative group of lay citizens and school staff members engage in a self-study experience. Out of this experience can come the information needed for the planning of integrated in-service opportunities for the total educational community.

Another approach to in-service education involves the identification of local pedagogical resource people. These are usually staff members with

special content-area talents or those who have been identified as outstanding teachers. They are used in much the same way as one would use a library or, perhaps, the fire department. This approach would probably not be feasible to consider for small rural schools except on a very limited basis.

At this point it might be appropriate to examine some of the personal and technological pairings that exist in contemporary in-service arrangements. They range from a person working alone (example one) to a group interacting with a technologically contrived package supported by a live instructor or other human resource (example seven).

IN-SERVICE RELATIONSHIPS

1	Person	alone	
2	Person	to	person
3	Person	to	group
4	Group	to	group
5	Person	to	machine/package
6	Group	to	machine/package
7	Person/ Group	to	machine package and person(s)

INDIVIDUALIZED TEACHER EDUCATION

The question is how can teachers in remote areas obtain quality opportunities for professional growth and development. The problem is not how we can transpose the traditional approaches used in urban and suburban systems to the rural scene. (There isn't any evidence to support the contention that the traditional approach works in the urban setting.) The major emphasis in education today is on individualized, personalized, and open education programs. These are broad terms that lack universally accepted definitions, but in essence they focus on the individual and his needs and interests. Teachers have needs and interests just as their students do. Learning opportunities for teachers must be based on the same principles that are used in the design of programs for children. In-service education for teachers must be on a personal basis. It must include a diagnosis of needs, an evaluation of interests, an establishment of priorities, an opportunity to make choices, a source of counseling, and a means of evaluating what is taking place. In-service opportunities must be readily available to the teacher in a form that can be easily used. Programs should be designed for use by the individual but must not rule out the possibility of small groups with common needs working together. The model program to be described will focus on the individual teacher in remote rural schools.[2] The model will make best use of currently available resources and present a need and justification for the creation of new ones.

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[2] It is recognized, however, that there are many common needs that can be satisfied in large group situations (for example, a program on drug abuse).

THE MODEL

First, it is necessary to introduce four basic interrelated elements that will be mentioned in the model.

1. The *staff member* who will engage in an in-service program (teacher administrator, aide, etc.);

2. An *in-service diagnostician (I.D.)* who will work with the staff member to identify needs and interests and plan a course of action;

3. A *national center* that will prepare and disseminate personalized programs; and

4. A *mentor* or counselor who will be an available resource to the staff member during the in-service program.

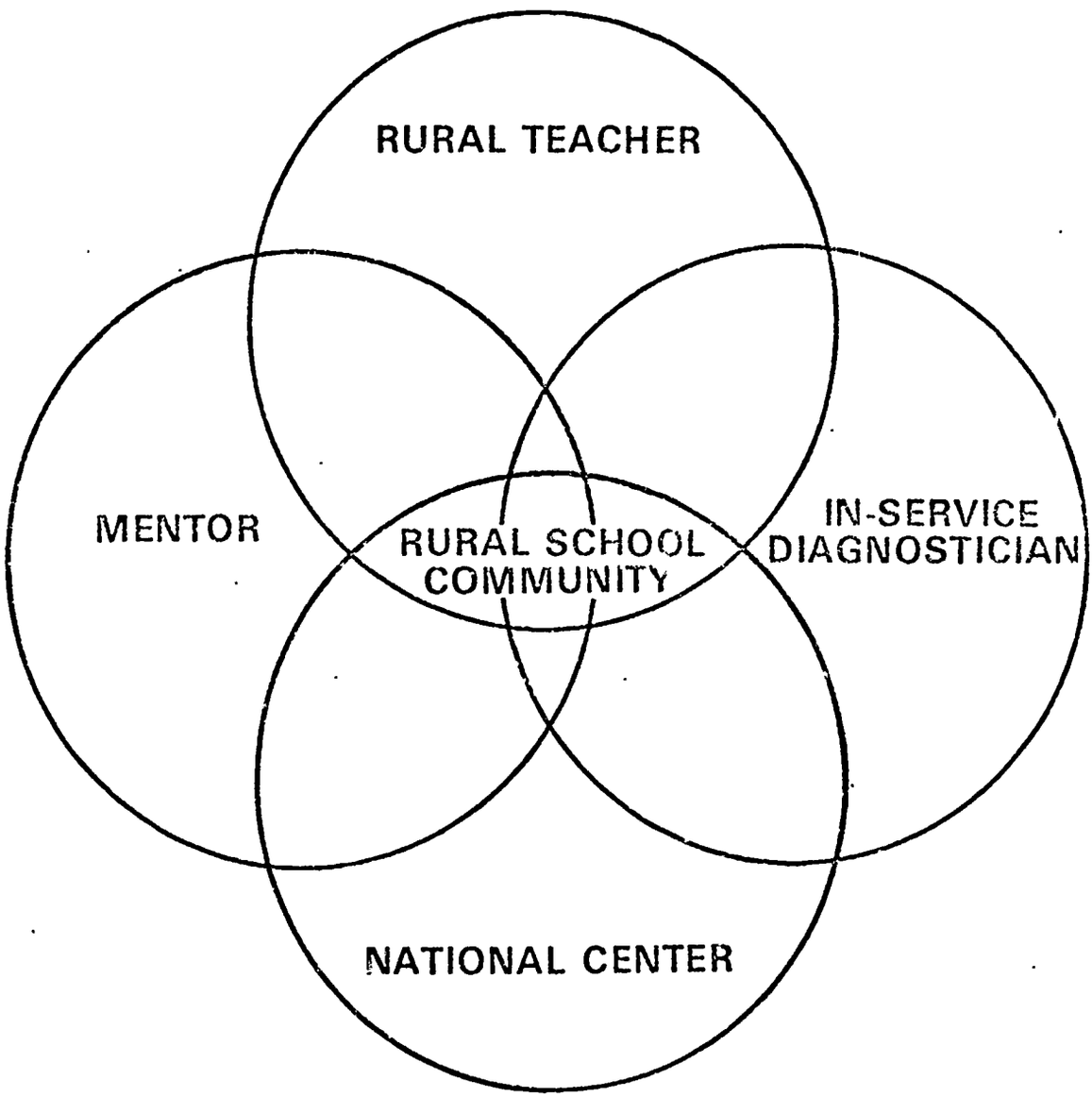
The program can be envisioned as a series of circles (*see* Diagram 1). Each element has its own circle and yet overlaps all of the others. The central focus is on the educational needs of the rural community and of course on those who are responsible for meeting these needs. Each element is involved in the educational in-service program for the teacher. However, each of the elements needs an opportunity for renewal and evaluation or, in other words, must be programmed for its own in-service education.

It should be pointed out early in this description that the model does not presuppose specific educational changes in the local district. For example, the use of the individualized program for the teacher does not imply that after a period of time the user schools will implement an individualized program of instruction. In fact, the author hopes that local school districts will first make decisions about their needs and then apply the model to train staff for the anticipated program. It is also possible that the model could quite correctly be used to help the district make decisions about their educational needs. The model does not dictate the local educational program; it can facilitate the change process or help determine if one should be implemented.

In its simplest form, the program would operate in the following manner. A staff member would be visited by an in-service diagnostician. The I.D. would work with him or her to identify needs and interests and establish a priority for in-service needs. The next step would be to contact the national center and request appropriate programs. The programs would arrive in the rural school district along with the names of available and suitable mentors. The staff member would begin the program and would call upon the mentor as needed (perhaps by telephone). If problems arise, the staff member, the I.D., and the mentor will confer and take appropriate action. At the conclusion of the program an evaluation will be conducted of all the participants and the national center; it will rate not only the staff member's progress but the value of the program and the services of the participants. At this point, the cycle continues with the I.D. moving to the next item of priority in the teacher's in-service program.

Diagram 1

RURAL IN-SERVICE MODEL



The In-Service Diagnostician

A more detailed look at this plan begins with an examination of the role of the in-service diagnostician. The I.D. would receive special training and preparation for the task, probably at a regional college or university that has a special interest in rural education. Trainees would come from the ranks of successful classroom or college teachers. The training center for an I.D. should also serve as his home base once he is assigned to the field.

An I.D. is placed in a rural geographic region employing 150-200 teachers. It might range in size from the Kenai Peninsula of Alaska to part of a county in the Catskill Mountains of New York. He will be one of a team of I.D.'s operating out of the same home base serving neighboring geographic regions. He will return to the home base periodically for debriefing sessions with other I.D.'s and their trainers. These sessions will include an analysis of his needs and an updating of skills and will provide input for improving the training program.

The cost of an I.D., his support services, and travel might average $25,000 per year or, applied against 200 teachers, would be approximately $125.00 per teacher per year. If the I.D. also serves a local university as a supervisor of student teachers (a possible arrangement) the cost could obviously be reduced. In light of the emphasis being placed upon performance-based teacher education programs and student- and intern-level field experiences of a more involved design, it seems that the special training of the I.D. might be most valuable. The off-campus residency of the I.D. and his direct association with the university places him in the unique position of being able to serve and improve both in-service and preservice educational programs.[3]

In theory, the I.D. might operate in the following manner. He would set up a series of meetings at each of the school districts within his region. He would meet with the local school board, the school staff,

[3]The model also might provide a closer relationship between teacher training institutions and consumer districts. For example, the movement toward improved opportunities for undergraduate practicums and performance-based certificates could easily be applied to the resource organization explicit in the model. Teacher training colleges must assume a continuing responsibility for their products. The present system of degree granting and certification does not include an evaluation phase and/or an opportunity for continued growth and development. Some states have mandated "fifth year" programs but they are not related to a diagnosis of teacher needs.

Teachers are at least as mobile as other citizens. In this model they would be involved in an on-the-job educational program with university assistance a possible option. Teachers need not and must not be abandoned on the graduation platform.

students, and the community to examine their educational goals and objectives or help to establish them. He would look for broad in-service needs during the visit and advise the school district of his findings. He would then help them implement a plan for the satisfaction of their broad needs. The next meeting would be with individual staff members. At this time, working on a one-to-one basis, he would help each staff member identify strengths, needs, and interests. Together they would establish a plan for the implementation of an in-service program.

Program Design

The progams will probably be individualized in that usually only one staff member will be working on a particular program in the district at any one time. It is possible, however, that two or more could work together. The reason for emphasizing the individual nature of the program (in addition to what has already been said about learning) is that it is expected that the staff member will choose to work at home or during free periods within the school day.

The design of these personalized in-service programs needs a great deal more thought than will be given in this paper. However, items of concern related to these programs follow:

1. Programs should in most cases have similar formats but should not be limited by a simple restrictive format. They should be designed for use on locally available or low-cost, multi-media equipment; equipment should not have to be supplied with the program except in rare instances. Some programs might require consumable materials or a film available from another source, or they might specify activities that cannot be confined to plastic or paper.

2. Programs should be designed for convenient storage, rapid recall, and editing as required. Programs might be reduced to microfilm or filmstrips with audio capability. Descriptions should be on computer with a coded system similar to the ERIC search system. At first, there should be only one national center for the development, storage, and dissemination of programs.

3. The cost of programs should be kept to a level that will permit their use by all who need them. Obviously, funding will be necessary to get such a project started, but, once operating, it might be able to sustain itself. It will need a strong national effort, or it will run into the same problems that other rural projects have faced in the past.

4. The need for programs should come from those in the field--I.D.'s teachers, and trainers of teachers. Designers of programs might be university staff members, educational writers, businessmen, educational laboratories, research and development centers, commercial educational houses, and teachers themselves.

5. All programs must have a built-in system for evaluation at the local level by the teacher, I.D., mentor, and/or the school system. Part of the evaluation should be a critique of the program.

6. An up-to-date list of mentors must be part of the system. Their value must be constantly critiqued, and the list changed accordingly.

7. The national center should have available the names of those who can generate new programs as they become necessary.

8. There is no reason to believe that the national center could not eventually become self supporting, providing the material generated is good, in-service becomes a contractual part of the teacher's job, and programs are not limited to circulation in rural schools.

The National Center

The teacher and the I.D. request one or more programs from the national center by sending in a description of the need. For example, the teacher in question has recently been assigned to a transition group (pre-first grade) and has encountered youngsters with learning disabilities. She has no training in this area, and it is determined that she must quickly obtain some skills in diagnosing the nature of and remediation for these disabilities. Stored at the national center on computer are descriptions of the available programs. In this case the request might look like

Learning Disabilities
Children Age 5, 6 and 7
Diagnosing, Teachers Role in
Remedial Programs, Teacher Prep.
(etc.)

The computer would print out descriptions of available programs based on the above information. These descriptions would be forwarded to the teacher and the I.D., who would read them and select the most suitable programs from those recommended. They would then advise the national center of their selections, and the actual programs would be sent to the teacher. Ideally, the in-service program would include the decision-making process that gave birth to the transition group to which the teacher was assigned.

The computer at the national center stores descriptions of the available programs and not the programs. It would operate in much the same way as the ERIC system does. As needs are discovered for which programs have not been written, it will be the responsibility of the national center to obtain them. The center would maintain a staff of its own but would also solicit programs from a variety of external sources such as universities, educational laboratories, and commercial distributors. Not all in-service needs will be met by programs of the type that a national center might have available. For example, the language teacher mentioned earlier needs to talk with a "native speaker" in his particular language. In this situation, the I.D., through the national center, identifies a human resource and arranges for the teacher and the resource to communicate. Their options will probably be the tape recorder and the telephone. This program might last for a few weeks or years.

The national center has several roles. It is the repository of programs, and it maintains a computer for storing descriptions of the programs. It is a prime developer of and a contractor for the development of new programs. It is a disseminator of programs and program materials. It maintains a file of available human resources (mentors), and it is a participant in the total evaluation of the in-service programs.

When the teacher in the field receives the program from the national center, it will be accompanied by a list of available mentors who are suitable to the content of the program. In some cases the mentor will be an expert, in other cases a facilitator, but in all cases a human resource with whom the teacher can communicate.

The Mentor

The mentor, in addition to interpreting and expanding the particular in-service program, is a concerned individual. His position is unique. He operates outside the control of the local school district. His communication with the teacher can be on as confidential a level as they both agree to. He can be honestly concerned with the teacher's problem and yet not pose a threat to the teacher. He does not give grades or evaluate the teacher for the district. Mentors should be chosen and retained on their demonstrated ability to work successfully with people.

Mentors have most recently been used in some of the new experimental colleges such as the New York State Empire College and the consortium of the University Without Walls. Under these two programs the mentor's role was that of an instructor-counselor who credited or certified the student's activities to the university. In this in-service model, the mentor plays a quite different role and is, in fact, only one of the many elements in the teacher's individual program.

The teacher and the I.D. select a mentor from the list, notify the national center of their choice, and then contact the mentor. The teacher and the mentor arrange the times and means of communication. In all probability they will make use of the telephone most frequently. Under certain conditions they might make use of audio or video tapes, photographs, or letters, and they might possibly meet face to face. Considering the remoteness of some rural areas, the latter is least likely and most costly.

The role of the mentor is varied. In one situation his role might be to give advice to the teacher having problems with human relations or to facilitate decision making. In another situation, he might primarily be a content area specialist; for example, to work with the language teacher cited above, he might have to be skilled in the Spanish language and be able to instruct for the improvement of skills. The teacher seeking information about learning disabilities might require an entirely different type of mentor. To improve his skills, the teacher

may choose to discuss the specific problems of the children in class. The mentor also has opportunities for sharing an enthusiasm and overcoming the burden of academic isolation in a concerned and human manner. He would have to understand the special human problems of the situation as well as the textbook solutions to the initial need. Additionally, he has the opportunity of working indirectly with the students as well as with the teacher.

In some instances it might be beneficial for more than one mentor to be assigned to an in-service program. Decisions like this would be made by the teacher and the I.D. after examining the local situation.

Program Management

The I.D. has the responsibility of coordinating the program once it is in operation. The evaluation, during the program or at its conclusion, involves all of the participants. The I.D., teacher, and mentor rate the progress that has been made as well as the effectiveness of the program and the input made by the mentor and the I.D. The national center is informed of the results and makes changes in the program. The I.D.'s home base is also informed and uses the input to upgrade the training program for future I.D.'s as well as the re-education of present I.D.'s. Nothing remains as it was; each element has an obligation to continue its in-service education.

The in-service program described in this paper has concentrated on the individual school staff member. It should be noted that the same general type of service from the I.D. is also available to the larger in-service groups within the school district or the geographic region. It was previously stated that the I.D. began his work at the district level identifying broad in-service needs. For example, a study group might be formed to look into the possibilities of sharing services among several districts. Programs would be obtained (in the same manner previously described) from the national center. The I.D.'s might help to identify what other rural districts have accomplished in the way of shared services or the types of procedures used in dealing with the public issues. A mentor or perhaps a series of mentors would be made available as the group progressed in its thinking. This type of in-service education would also carry an evaluation phase. The steps and the types of resources would be similar to those used with the individualized programs.

Based on the limited descriptions thus far and the implementation of the model as presented, the following cost estimate is offered on a per teacher basis assuming that each teacher utilizes two programs per year.

I.D.	$125.00	to	$150.00
Rental of programs	30.00	to	50.00
Contract with mentor	25.00	to	50.00
	$180.00	to	$250.00

This, of course, is a very rough estimate, but if on the average it cost a district $200 per year per staff member for in-service education, this would probably be less than 3 percent of the teacher's annual salary (assuming that the average teacher earns $8500 or less per year).

Conclusion

The model attempts to meet the individual learning needs of teachers in remote rural areas. It uses many of the same techniques being tested in schools throughout the country and introduces new elements to compensate for the special problems associated with a low density of population (I.D.'s and remote mentors). Storage and retrieval capabilities of computers that have been demonstrated by the ERIC system are incorporated. A variety of uses of the nation's universities and their resources are suggested. The plan can be economically feasible only if it attracts broad regional or national usage. If used on a regional basis, it can serve as a model for the nation's rural teachers, or if used nationally, it can become a model for rural education programs in other countries.

INDIVIDUALIZING REMOTE IN-SERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS FOR RURAL AREAS

Edward Krahmer

Individualizing Remote In-Service Teacher Education Programs For Rural Areas

INTRODUCTION

This paper develops a general model for in-service teacher education programs which would be especially applicable to remote rural areas. The model will be developed under five headings:

1. Problem,
2. Rationale for the Model,
3. Individualization as the Key to the Model,
4. How to Achieve Individualization, and
5. Organization and Implementation Details.

PROBLEM

Rural America represents a significant portion of the population of the United States today and will continue to do so tomorrow. However, it is a forgotten population, for the most part, in comparison to all the concerns evidenced over suburban and urban problems. The potential opportunity for the rural population to demonstrate solutions to urban problems resulting, at least to some extent, out of bigness has never been capitalized upon. Rural educators have always recognized some advantages to their setting, and even school patrons are now considering these advantages, as evidenced by the moratorium on school consolidation. However, the experience of rural educators is frequently too limited to take advantage of the opportunity.

The basic problem that must be attacked is the lack of opportunity for in-service education usually found in rural areas. Rural schools employ an insufficient number of teachers to justify the cost of in-service programs presently offered by colleges and universities. The question can also be raised whether the programs offered by colleges are what schools desire. Further, the rural district superintendent, frequently the only full-time administrator, is not in a position to develop his own in-service program.

The role of the rural teacher is not any different in terms of in-service needs than that of the urban or suburban teacher; all teachers can use additional assistance in how and what to teach. Specialty personnel, such as administrators, counselors, and librarians, can also use assistance with their respective responsibilities. The only concession to rural differences that is justified is the recognition that rural educators frequently wear several hats; i.e., they teach several subject areas, function as a part-time principal-teacher, etc. The in-service needs of rural educators are, therefore, more diverse and require possibly some repackaging of in-service education programs to cover essential elements in the available time.

A number of additional problems specific to rural education, such as the following, require attention in developing an in-service program.

1. Financial status of rural schools,

2. Distance between rural schools and institutions of higher education, and

3. Motivation of teachers in rural schools.[1]

RATIONALE FOR THE MODEL

One basic belief is central to this model for individualizing remote in-service teacher education programs or, for that matter, any teacher education program--rural or urban, pre- or in-service. This is a belief in the existence of individual differences among any group of students which must be accounted for in education programs.

The efforts that are expended in the search for the one education program which will serve to meet the needs of all participants are appalling. Anyone truly accepting the tenet of individual differences, and the necessity of assisting students to meet their individual needs, would have to support its application in the classroom. That is, potentially there must be as many ways, or programs, for learning as there are students--such is individualization.

As an example of the divergent thinking about meeting individual needs, the reader need look no further than the alternative school concept. In some instances this is no more than an attempt to find an alternative to the existing program--an alternative which will be a panacea. The child who is already learning up to his potential is overlooked, and it is this child who is often dissatisfied with the alternative. At the other extreme, alternative schools should mean an attempt to provide one or more variations to the existing programs; students being free to opt, or volunteers, for the alternative programs. Whether or not these alternatives are housed in the same building does not detract seriously from the availability of various instructional approaches from which students are motivated to choose.

This viewpoint in no way rules out the traditional classroom approach. For some students this remains the best way to meet their individual needs. Furthermore, individualization can occur any place, even behind the closed doors of a traditional one teacher-30 student classroom. An excellent example of this is the many individualized one-room rural schools of the present and past.

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[1] For a detailed treatment of these and other concerns, the reader should refer to Appendix A.

The application of this viewpoint is hindered, however, by the number of teachers available in urban regions. It is quite easy to assemble a class of 20 teachers willing to take almost any course required as part of a degree program which will result in an increase in the salary schedule. It is equally easy for the instructor to utilize the traditional lecture approach while rationalizing that it is each student's responsibility to comprehend and utilize the content of the course once it is presented to him in lecture and book form.

Teacher in-service education programs for remote rural regions have too frequently followed the lead of "big brother." Extension divisions of colleges and universities establish regulations that 15 to 30 students are required before a course for credit can be offered. Since the number of teachers within driving distance of any central point in a rural region is usually quite limited, it is infrequent that a course is offered. Again, an easy rationalization is that the college has no further responsibility since a summer program is usually available for these teachers. However, many of these teachers have family responsibilities which limit, if not forbid, such activities.

Colleges serving remote rural regions, the school districts in the regions, and the teachers cannot continue to ignore their respective responsibilities. The student in a rural area, according to the courts, is as deserving of an equal educational opportunity as is received by his urban and suburban counterparts. Equal opportunity goes beyond financial matters to equally prepared teachers.

INDIVIDUALIZATION AS THE KEY TO THE MODEL

If 20 educators were to be asked for their definition of individualized instruction, probably 20 different answers would be received. Possibly this is as it should be considering that these different answers are an indication that individualization is being internalized. Because of the variety of definitions, however, it is essential that the meaning of individualization, as used in this paper, be understood.

The concern for in-service education is for cognitive knowledge which rural educators must have available in order to perform their tasks. It is assumed that the rural educator has the personality traits required to function in his role. Individualization, in this paper, therefore, will refer to any approaches, even group activities, which serve to meet the in-service needs of rural educators and which recognize that the traditional classroom approach is inadequate. Individualization also means personalization of an in-service program to meet the needs of each teacher; it does not mean a single program designed to meet the needs of all.

Possibly the first, and apparently yet the most popular, definition of individualizing defines it with respect to time. No two students need be covering the same material at the same rate on the same day. Programmed texts and workbooks are examples of this form of individualization in

action. This was probably a good place to begin the process of individualization, since it served to change most radically the teacher's role. Instead of lecturing to the entire class and covering the subject matter in sequential order, the teacher works individually with each student at the point where he is with regard to the same sequentially ordered subject matter. For the student, individualization with respect to time means little more than that it is acceptable to differ in rate of learning from one's fellow students. Actually, despite whatever the teacher did in a lecture setting, students were learning at their individual rates anyway.

Once the concept of same rate at the same time was overcome, and as a concern for greater humanism and respect for the individual and his needs came into prominence, it was natural to question "same material." Being asked even today is the question, Is it necessary that all students cover the same basic content? Answers range from a very conservative view of the curriculum, consisting totally of essential content that all students must master, to the other extreme view of a totally unstructured curriculum having few, if any, required basic skills. Since middle ground is usually closer to reality, it is most appropriate to operate from the assumption that certain basic skills form the essential groundwork for any study, including the in-service education of teachers.

Operationally, these views on individualization function in two ways. With regard to the basic skills, some educators suggest that large group experiences are the best manner in which to develop these skills since socialization can also take place. However, other educators operate from the assumption that any number of approaches can be used to build the basic skills; the one most appropriate to each learner should be identified. Whatever their belief with regard to basic skills, all teachers espousing a belief in individualizing the content of learning view as an important activity the identification of content essential to each learner. The only real difference among teachers is the amount of time spent on individualized content once the basic skills have been covered.

A final definition of individualizing education concerns the instructional approach used by each student to reach his learning goals. A variety of research studies into the relative effectiveness of various instructional approaches has resulted in two basic conclusions: a) different people learn best using different instructional approaches and b) a combination of instructional approaches is better than any one alone. An attempt is first made to identify the instructional approach most effective for each student, and then the student's learning program is built around this approach with other approaches being used to reinforce the learning as it occurs.

The individualized remote in-service teacher education program to be described in the remainder of this paper will be built around the concept of individualizing with regard to each of the three dimensions of rate-time, content, and instructional approach.

HOW TO ACHIEVE INDIVIDUALIZATION

It is one thing to speak of individualizing and another thing actually to accomplish. Of primary importance when individualizing instruction are structure, content, materials, and methodology.

Structure

Instruction, especially individualized instruction, does not take place in a vacuum. Both teachers and students need structure, but for different, even contradictory, reasons. Students need structure in terms of an outline for what and how they are to learn. Teachers need structure in terms of what and how they are to teach.

The textbook, with lecture, has served as an excellent structure for the teacher, in terms of what is to be taught and how. But the book assumes that the same subject matter taught in the same manner is applicable to all students--something research has repeatedly shown to be a fallacy. In other words, the book is anything but an ideal approach for all students.

Structure, then, amounts to some form of identifying the needs of students and society and the manner in which these needs will be met. This structure should be equally useful to the teacher (assuming that the instructional tasks are manageable within the given time constraints) and to the student (assuming that his individual needs can be satisfied despite the group setting within which teachers have to operate). It is essential that this identification involve all concerned people, including the teacher.

Content

Content represents the broad scope of what is to be covered; subject matter represents what content will be covered in a given course or segment of time. The content under consideration is all that rural educators ideally should know in order to be able to perform their duties best.

As with student learning, certain basic skills seem desirable for all educators to develop. These basic skills should form the basis for preservice education programs. While it might be necessary to reinforce some of the content of traditional preservice programs, subject matter beyond the preservice level is not essential for all educators. Emphasis, rather, should be placed on what each educator, as an individual, needs to know in order to be able to function best within a given educational setting.

Materials

Too frequently, teachers make limited use of available instructional material. The teacher of the past had only the textbook and blackboard

to use, and he made them serve his purposes admirably. Unfortunately, many teachers of today utilize no additional materials other than an occasional movie.

Individualization brings with it the necessity for a greater variety of instructional materials. Even for the student who likes to learn by reading, attention spans are too short to rely solely on this form of instructional material. Considerably more materials are presently available than teachers usually utilize; the necessity for the development of additional materials, while important, is not the most essential concern. The primary concern must be for a wider variety of instructional materials acceptable to teachers and actively used by them.

Methodology: The Contract Method of In-Service Education

Methodology, or how to undertake and carry out an educational activity, is a relatively simple matter when the instructor simply stands up in front of a group and lectures. The procedure becomes considerably more complex when a variety of instructional approaches is used with a group whose members are studying different subject matter.

The remainder of this section will propose a model for providing the structure for a remote in-service education program; the final section will briefly consider content, materials, and methodology.

THE MODEL

The model is based on what might best be termed a contract. While this contract bears some resemblance to student contracts developed and used by some elementary and secondary schools, some distinct differences exist as well.

A contract reflects a given skill, competency, or body of knowledge useful to a particular educator in performing his duties. One or more performance objectives should be stated to indicate what the educator will know or be capable of doing once the contract is successfully completed. While attainment of the objective(s) might well be undertaken through different subject matter bases, only a given amount of subject matter should be required. A reasonable amount is that required to earn one unit of college credit. If teaching areas, e.g., English and mathematics, as well as professional education, are subjected to the contracts approach, the potential number of contracts might well be in the thousands.

The contract, itself, should encompass, in no more than a couple of pages, at least the following elements:

1. *Performance objective(s)*. The in-service educator will review the objectives to determine whether the contract is one he wishes to undertake.

2. *Alternatives for meeting the objective(s)* These alternatives might be different subject matter approaches or different reference sources upon which to base the contract.

3. *Instructional approaches for fulfilling each alternative*. Some alternatives, such as those based on a reference source, might simply use a book as the sole instructional approach. Other alternatives should afford a variety of media, materials, and experiences that can be used as the instructional approach by in-service educators who learn best by means other than reading.

4. *Measurement of attainment of objective(s)*. Self-administered tests should be incorporated into the contract for review and self-evaluation. The instructor version should also include some measuring devices for purposes of assigning credit. Thus, the educator should be able to self-determine success while the instructor has a basis for certifying to the college or university that credit should be granted.

Frequently included in contracts are supplementary materials. However, the variety of alternatives suggested in elements 2 and 3 above should afford all the supplementary materials needed.

The contract provides a potentially ideal means of meeting both the instructor's and the in-service educator's need for structure, as both parties negotiate the contract. The rural educator will have options in addition to enrolling simply in a given course. Once enrolled he can still have a voice in what he will learn and how he will go about learning it. The instructor, once the educator has indicated his preferences, can, in turn, specify how he will be involved with the student in assisting with the learning process. This important concept, which assures that the human touch will not be lost, will receive more attention further on in this paper.

The preceding description of a contract provides for three elements: rate-time, content, and instructional approach. Rate-time could be strictly a matter for individual educator initiative; however, a minimal time frame will be proposed in the next section to overcome the human tendency to "put off for tomorrow what should be, but does not have to be, done today." Content is discussed first with regard to discrete segments of subject matter covered by each contract and secondly, within a contract, with regard to alternative subject matter approaches for arriving at the level of learning specified in the performance objective. Finally, variations in instructional approach are specified.

ORGANIZATION AND IMPLEMENTATION DETAILS

This section will cover two considerations: a) general details of organization and implementation and b) specific details for a pilot test.

General Details of Organization and Implementation

Ultimately, it is essential that attention be given to the parameters of in-service education. The old question of what constitutes an ideal teacher must be raised in terms of what content should be covered through in-service education. The development of in-service programs is too haphazard, with each institution specifying what constitutes an acceptable program. Some meeting of the minds of specialists in this field would reduce the duplication of effort and would result in the availability of time and resources necessary for the preparation of a coordinated in-service program. (An obvious benefit of such a nationally coordinated program is its continued availability to the teacher who seeks employment in a new locale).

Unfortunately, national adoption of this or any major new program is not likely to occur. It is likely that it will be individual institutions that initiate a contract-based in-service program. While not the ideal fashion, a few successful experiences should lead to more widespread adoption in this approach.

It is further likely that individual institutions will initiate the contracts approach in only one or a few areas. Professional education, utilizing heavily as a base the number of excellent, packaged in-service programs readily available, would be an excellent area in which to begin. Several subject areas are also quite adaptable to this approach. Ideally, all areas should be subjected to the contract approach and most especially the subject areas, since the potential number of enrollees for any subject area is relatively small in remote rural regions.

An immediate concern is the decision-making process educators follow when contemplating enrolling in an in-service program. Unfortunately, the attitude is usually "what can I get out of it." Even more unfortunately, the decision is usually based on an increase in salary or professional advancement. Too infrequently is it in order that the educator can perform better so that students may learn better. Educators also often enroll in courses because they are easier, or more convenient to attend, or the instructor is a better lecturer, etc.

Unless the teaching profession assumes responsibility for demanding more highly qualified staff through contractual arrangements, it will probably be necessary to legislate this program in order to assure that all educators in all schools participate.

In defense of the educators, it is probable that they are as confused as are many teacher educators concerning what knowledge and skills should be acquired in order to enhance their role performance. An essential element of this contract-based remote in-service education program is a criterion-referenced assessment of each in-service educator as a means of assisting the educator in planning a realistic program to meet his needs. It will be relatively easy to develop such an instrument once the content of in-service programs is determined and specified in performance objective terms.

It is proposed that the instrument be developed in terms of a "bank" of items reflecting each objective. When an educator expresses interest in enrolling in an in-service program, an in-service advisor will be assigned. The advisor will first assist the in-service educator in specifying his immediate requirements, which will be translated into specific objectives. The objectives will be keyed into a computer which will generate an individualized assessment instrument, as is already being done in a number of public schools. Upon completing the instrument and receiving feedback, the in-service educator and advisor will be in a superior decision-making role compared to present-day educators with regard to determining what in-service experiences to obtain.

Throughout their programs of studies, every in-service educator should have access to a number of specialists; specifically, a contact person, an advisor, and an instructor. Within each school there should be a contact person, identified by the superintendent, who a) is familiar with the program, b) provides assistance to educators in enrolling. and c) follows up on the educators for motivational purposes, etc. The latter function is most essential if an individualized in-service program is to succeed.

The advisor, already mentioned, will meet with the in-service teacher to review the enrollee's ability, experience, previous preparation, interests, and immediate needs. This review, in the form of a personal interview, should culminate in the administration of a criterion-referenced assessment instrument. The instrument, individually tailored to the in-service educator, will be immediately scored (possibly it can be administered on a computer terminal) so that feedback will be rapid. Feedback will consist of the assessment of strengths and weaknesses from which specific contracts of immediate concern to the in-service educator will be identified. The initial assessment will also include a determination of how the in-service educator best tends to learn, e.g., reading, listening, seeing. Periodic reassessment, negotiated with the advisor, can be used as one means of measuring progress in reaching learning goals as well as a means of determining what contracts to consider next.

The in-service educator, upon completing an initial assessment, will enroll in one or more contract courses identified as being of high priority. Here, the in-service educator will encounter the third type of in-service facilitating staff member, the instructor. The in-service educator will initially review the written description of the contract. Next, he will

meet with the instructor on an individual basis to negotiate the manner in which the contract will be approached. Negotiation involves the following steps: a) answering questions the in-service educator may have after reviewing the contract, b) answering questions the instructor may have after reviewing the in-service educator's background, c) considering alternative means for performing the contract and the instructor's involvement in each, d) selecting subject matter and an instructional approach acceptable to the in-service educator, and e) determining the instructor's role in the learning process. Finally, the in-service educator will be involved with the instructor throughout the performance of the contract.

The instructor obviously has a vital role to play which differs from the traditional role perceived by faculty members in institutions of higher education. First, the instructor need not be such a faculty member but may be any person at any level who meets a stringent set of criteria. The instructor has only a limited number of class meetings in which he lectures. Most of his negotiated contracts are made on an individual basis and, to a greater extent than at present, by telephone.

At least two new roles are perceived for the instructor. First, he will develop instructional materials as part of a team including faculty from other institutions, public school personnel, and media specialists. Secondly, he will assist in-service educators in the development of different subject matter and instructional approaches for fulfilling a contract. It is foreseen that educators will desire to explore alternatives, and, hence, the number of alternatives available within the contracts should be considerably increased. These alternatives will be normally encountered during the negotiation process between the instructor and the educator.

While the contract approach lends itself to a highly flexible time schedule whereby an in-service educator could enroll in a contract course at any time, this might not be the best arrangement. Teachers, as well as their students, require some form of structure to assure maximum performance. Designating specified enrollment dates, not necessarily tied to present quarter or semester schedules, could be one means of providing this structure. The contract would have a minimum and maximum time duration for completion based on the number of enrollment periods. For example, the enrollment dates might be set as the first of each month, and the contract duration might be completion between two and six enrollment periods (months) from the date of enrollment.

At the beginning of each contract course, a meeting will be held for enrollees. At that meeting, the instructor will provide group experiences of importance to all enrollees; administer, score, and interpret self-evaluation pre-tests; and conduct the individual negotiation sessions. Interim meeting(s) with some or all of the enrollees desiring group experiences can be scheduled as demand warrants. Finally, an end-of-contract meeting will be scheduled near the completion of each enrollment

period. Those in-service educators who believe that they have successfully completed the contract will attend the meeting for "debriefing" and post-contract evaluation for credit assignment purposes. Failure need not necessarily mean termination of the course; rather the in-service educator can renegotiate the contract in terms of remedial experiences and attend a later end-of-the-contract meeting.

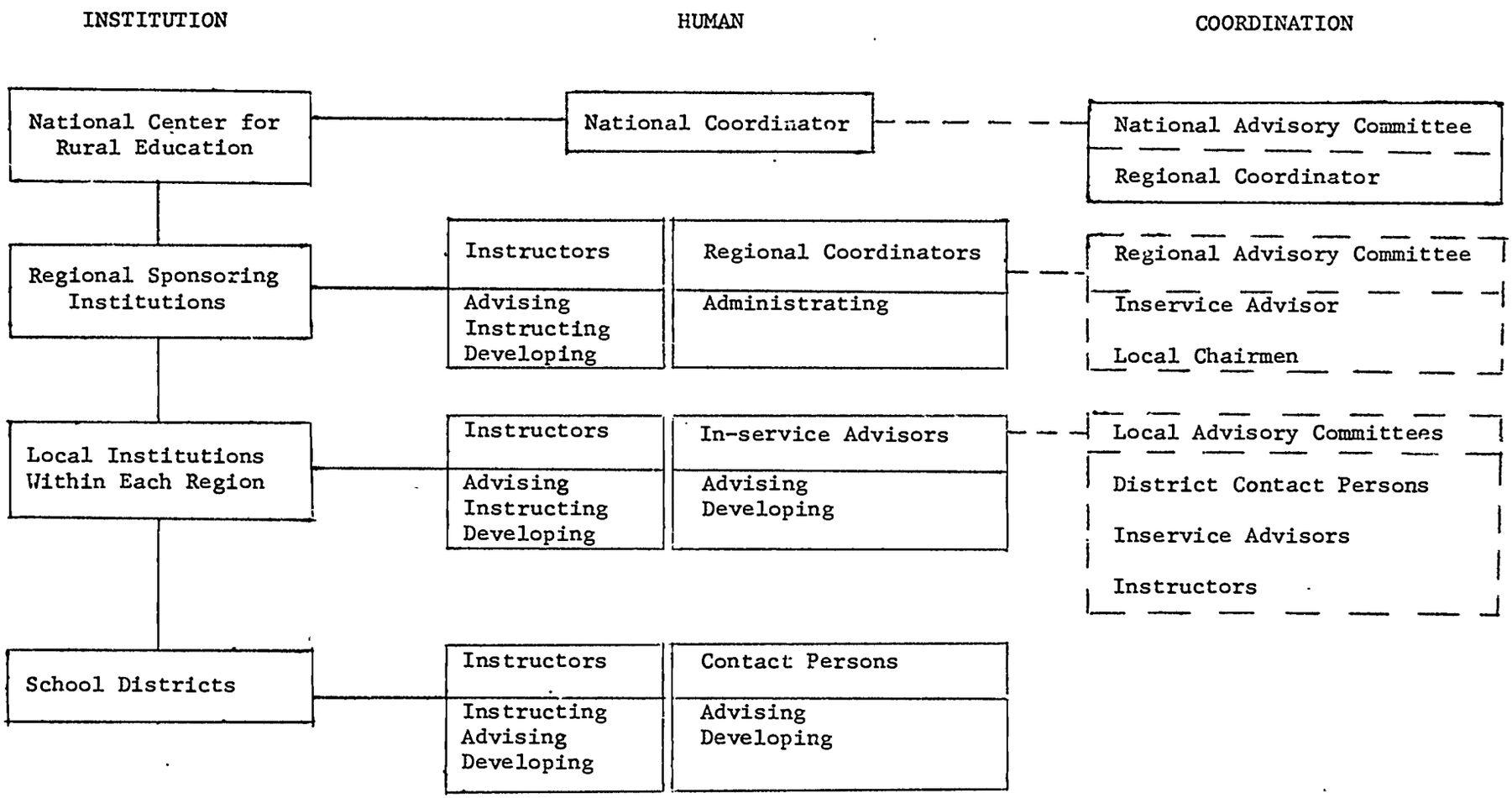
Other means of interaction between the in-service educator and instructor, such as telephone, video and audio tapes, or instructor visitations, might be scheduled as appropriate. However, primary emphasis is not placed on these approaches for at least two reasons: first, the potential for group interactions exists on at least a limited basis; and secondly, there is the possibility of access to resources, such as libraries and specialty personnel available only on the campuses of institutions of higher education. Two evening or Saturday meetings per contract course should be possible, and the results should be sufficiently beneficial to a school district to warrant releasing the educator for an afternoon, periodically, as an incentive to attend these sessions and use the facilities and personnel of the sponsoring institution. Financing for the released time, however, might need to be secured from sources other than the district.

The contracts themselves will be dependent upon materials which can be used in an individualized fashion, i.e., are independent of the institution of higher education. The book is the most obvious and least expensive form of material. Almost any other medium can be used to present subject matter and will be required for the many educators who do not learn best by reading. At this point, the involvement of nationally renowned teacher training institutions becomes vital: it will be primarily their responsibility to develop the needed materials. However, the determination of contract areas, preparation of written contract statements, and instruction in the contract courses can and should be a joint undertaking involving the cooperating institutions of higher education, public and private schools, state educational agencies, etc. The problems and expense of preparing materials in various media dictates that a) inexpensive forms of media be used, i.e., slide/tape or audio or video tapes and b) reliance be placed on the utilization of existing materials whenever these can serve to meet the need.

Prior to the implementation of this model, the United States should be divided into regions--each region assigned to one or more teacher training institutions. These institutions will organize a consortium of all institutions of higher education serving rural schools within each region. Each institution will, in turn, form a consortium of the rural school districts and the intermediate service unit, which in many instances has assumed responsibility for in-service programs. Working committees, to handle the administrative, developmental, and operational details of this undertaking, should be established to cross all levels within the hierarchy--from the school districts through the local institution of higher education to the lead institution(s) at the regional and national levels. At the

Diagram 2

NATIONAL STRUCTURE FOR RURAL IN-SERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION



national level an advisory committee comprised of regionally unbiased persons should be established to look objectively at the overall scope of the program. This committee should be jointly coordinated by an agency representing the concerns of rural education, such as the Rural Education Association of the National Education Association, and the concerns of teacher education institutions and personnel, such as the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education and Association of Teacher Educators. (*See* the organizational diagram on the following page for a visual explanation of this structure.)

Each institution will identify its in-service facilitating staff member. At the school district level, staff members will have the particular responsibilities described previously in this section and will also serve as district representatives on the in-service committee formed by the local institution of higher education. At the college or university level, this person will most likely serve as coordinator of all aspects of the in-service program as administered by his institution.

These in-service facilitating staff members, and the committees on which they serve, have dual purposes: first, they conduct administrative, developmental, and operational activities to assure that a successful in-service education program is available.. Secondly, and of equal importance, they serve as a chain of communications for linking the developments in one area or region to the entire system. For example, all participating agencies and interested personnel should know when a new contract is developed, a new subject matter or instructional approach is added to an existing contract, or new materials are prepared. Awareness should occur early--for example, when an institution initiates product development--to assure that no other institution undertakes a similar activity. The ERIC Clearinghouses on Rural Education and Small Schools and on Teacher Education would appear to be the ideal agencies to facilitate this process at the national level. The resultant reduction in duplication of effort in development of in-service programs alone should be sufficient to cover the expense of this program.

The consideration of credit and program length is solely a matter for individual concern. The educator might want a single contract course to develop a specific competency, a sequence of contract courses to accomodate a new interest or employment area, or an entire graduate degree program. For the first two concerns, the local institution of higher education, or even the school district, can provide some type of certificate of completion or credit as appropriate, even if the actual instruction for a contract course is offered through another institution. At the degree grant level, selected institutions will serve to offer these programs, even if the actual instruction for a contract course if offered through a local institution which does not grant graduate degrees.

It will be a matter for individual institutions to determine what sequence of contract courses constitutes a degree program for a given specialty. It also should be the decision of the individual institution

what to do in the event that an educator proves to be competent in one or more contract courses on the basis of the criterion-referenced assessment. Nevertheless, 30 credits for a master's degree is an artificial figure. If an educator demonstrates competency in some aspect of a program designed for a given specialty, this evidence should be accepted for credit in lieu of further participation in a given course.

There are guidelines which should be followed regarding course instruction. It should be the responsibility of all agencies to assure that only the most competent instructors are used. However, every effort should be made to secure instructors from all levels--including the school districts--especially for courses expected to be in heavy demand. In advanced degree programs this will be of less concern since the number of potential enrollees would likely be limited.

How to determine who is qualified to instruct contract courses is a question deserving serious attention. First, the selected persons should be quite open, flexible, and able to work individually with teachers on a partnership basis. Measurement devices are available to measure somewhat objectively these and other affective traits. Secondly, the instructor should be competent beyond question in the contract areas for which he will be responsible. Finally, he should indicate a willingness to participate in the developmental activities which form an integral part of the contract model.

It is suggested that a review board be established to air any grievances arising from decision-making processes. This personal contact should resolve unusual situations, which sometimes occur even when an objective procedure is used for decision making. However, this board should not be used to by-pass basic reliance on an objective assessment of qualifications.

Pilot Test

Ideally, any new program should be well organized from its inception; however, this is not as essential with the contract approach. A rather modest pilot test is proposed as a means of initiating the model. This pilot test might best be accomplished by identifying a sponsoring institution of higher education which is also a leader in teacher education, two or three satellite institutions (possibly teacher colleges located in the region to be served), and the school districts of the region.

This consortium of institutions would follow a seven-step process in pilot testing the model:

1. Identifying the in-service needs of school personnel in the region to be served,

2. Preparing the basic contract course outline for each in-service need,

3. Identifying an in-service facilitating staff member in each school and institution of higher education,

4. Enrolling educators in the various contract courses,

5. Negotiating contracts with enrollees,

6. Completing contracts, and

7. Testing for credit assignment and for management information upon which to base revisions of contracts.

The first step would be undertaken jointly by the institutions of higher education and the school districts. An attitudinal instrument should be developed through which all people involved in education could indicate preferences for which subjects they would like to see available through an in-service program. For the pilot test, subject areas might be limited to professional education. This approach is a traditional form of needs assessment. Also highly desirable, and in the long run essential, is a criterion-referenced instrument keyed to the performance objectives of the contracts which can be used to determine the strengths and weaknesses of a given educator. The educator and his in-service advisors will then have a more objective basis for deciding which specific contracts to emphasize.

The criterion-referenced approach suggests that the contract outline for the pilot test might need to be completed in advance of the needs assessment, depending upon the time frame. This could quite easily be accomplished, since some areas for in-service contracts will be obvious.

At this pilot stage, it is suggested that a contract consist of the performance objectives and only two or three alternative means for fulfilling the objectives. Considering the availability of instructional materials and approaches designed for in-service utilization which can be adapted to an individualized approach, it should be relatively easy to develop the two or three alternatives. Each contract will be developed by a team consisting of a specialist from the sponsoring institution of higher education, other qualified personnel from the satellite institutions, and representative contact persons from participating rural school districts. Team members will probably serve as instructors when the contract is offered.

Besides serving on the contract preparation teams, the district contact persons will serve a number of functions, all aimed at fulfilling the need for a two-way communication link between district personnel (including teachers) and the institutions of higher education. An advisory board, comprised of all the district coordinators, will meet periodically for feedback purposes. Also, within each district, the contact person will coordinate tests and special assignments, etc. However, unanticipated areas will turn up through the needs assessment.

The pilot test program should be limited to course areas which fit the present course structure of the sponsoring institutions. This would facilitate the process of assuring equivalency of credit for use in degree programs as well as the development of a criterion-referenced assessment instrument.

When institutions are ready to enroll educators on a pilot basis, both degree and non-degree seeking educators should be encouraged to participate. The procedure for negotiating, instructing, and testing, specified previously, can be followed as guidelines for the pilot test.

A 2-year minimum period is essential to explore fully the potential of this approach. The first year would emphasize the initial three steps: a) identification of in-service needs of educators, b) preparation of contract course outlines, and c) identification of in-service facilitating staff members. It should be possible, where existing programs can be capitalized upon, actually to implement a few contract courses toward the end of the first year. During the first year, it will also be possible to develop the criterion-referenced assessment instrument.

The second year of the pilot test would afford the opportunity to implement a comprehensive range of contract courses in a defined area, such as professional education. An evaluation effort should parallel the implementation process in order to compare cognitive results under the two systems and to determine educator attitudes of the two forms of in-service education.

The form of in-service education found in this model is potentially beneficial to educators from any section of society. More teacher education institutions should give closer consideration to the needs of the individual.

The Voucher System: An Integration of In-Service Support Services Through the Teacher as Consumer

Lionel Orlikow

The Voucher System: An Integration of In-Service Support Services Through the Teacher as Consumer

INTRODUCTION

The major thesis in this paper lies in its concern to establish a sharp break with the laws of existing staff development projects. Isolated and small rural communities function in a colonially dependent relationship to larger urban centers. Patchwork and add-on efforts to existing efforts will do little to force rural communities to look to and to mobilize their own resources.

ASSUMPTIONS

First, it is difficult, if not hazardous, to establish great generalizations about the available resources and needs for all isolated and small rural communities. Needs of children differ according to various mixes of racial, ethnic, and socio-economic facts. Political development varies thereby influencing the articulation of priorities. External support services are diverse, being delivered by assorted government agencies, post-secondary institutions, and voluntary associations. Each community must develop its own unique educational infrastructure.

Secondly, teachers should have prime responsibility for designing their own educational activities. These activities would include the development of certain skills, attitudes, and understandings. They should have roots in the rural community and not represent a rejection of it as has been the case so frequently in the past. The activities should be shared whenever possible--in part to help break down the isolation experienced by small-school teachers. In short--development of teachers should reflect the same type of development that one seeks within school children.

Finally, traditional forms of educational delivery have demonstrated a blood sameness inimical to non-urban teachers. For example, the trend to greater specialization at colleges of education belies the continuing small schools' need for teachers-in-training to possess broad interdisciplinary studies. In the same direction, a frequent absence of competing social institutions in the community compels small schools and their teachers to become active in recreation-leisure time activities. The transfer of extra resources to established agencies has slight potential in meeting unique needs of isolated and rural small schools.

THE NEED

The teachers would reside and work in schools beyond comfortable commuting distance of a university's college of education. Many of these teachers possess minimal certification requirements. Although a substantial number are married women with little opportunity to spend extensive periods of time in residence, the minority who soon move away to a larger center are better served by traditional offerings.

Most rural centers exhibit a shortage or deficit of many types of educational supports, such as funds, library materials, consultants. Yet, many agencies--government and private--provide educational inputs both of a direct and indirect nature. At a time of concern over rising education costs, it becomes imperative to integrate these disparate efforts. (This stage goes beyond coordination.)

A staff development program should rest upon the needs of the staff member to be affected. Unfortunately, a counsellor or advisor frequently becomes the advocate of that particular segment of reality or agency to which he or she is responsible. This may or may not be in the best interests of the student.

Staff must be prepared to become more effective educators in isolated and rural communities. Not only does this require a knowledge about the community and its development but also a willingness to utilize the community resources in the school. The high external dependency base in such communities makes it all the more imperative to develop a positive self-image among students, teachers, and citizens alike.

THE PROPOSAL

A state department of education should provide a) vouchers, redeemable in course credits, to individual teachers for staff development purposes and b) regionally based program teams, who would work with teachers in assessing their needs and establishing linkages with various educational agencies.

Vouchers could be utilized for any type of course beyond the initial two years of college. The placement of purchasing power in the hands of the community--i.e., the teacher--could facilitate truly consumer-centered programs. A voucher could purchase service from any form of educational agency whether university, government, or voluntary. No institution thereby would possess a monopoly of course delivery. Each would compete to satisfy the needs of teachers as expressed through the vouchers.

The regional or community-based program development teams would work with teachers in assisting a cooperative approach in self-development. Being responsible to the teacher clients, programmers would not be deflected by extraneous issues, such as individual goals and the fragmented, non-teacher related goals of an agency. Their precise number in a region would be determined by a variety of factors, such as the spatial proximity of communities and the record of staff participation in decision making

Courses could be delivered in many ways--individual tutorials, seminars, individualized study, and guided clinical activities. Aside from the conventional sources of instructors, the programmers would be encouraged to utilize as many local human resources as possible, be they fellow-teachers, a chief of a native band, or president of a local trade union.

Existing resources would be utilized whenever possible. No facilities need be constructed. No elaborate machinery of a new organization need be developed. Delivery of courses in rural centers would curtail travel and residential costs. Utilization of local individuals--particularly exemplary fellow-teachers--as instructors whenever possible would foster an exploration in building up their own resources. Furthermore, the use of vouchers as ballots would provide effective monitoring to prevent such rigidities in universities as tenure and low teaching load.

It must be stressed that the pattern of this organization goes far beyond decentralization. While the state would retain ultimate authority primarily through its funding, the legal conferring of powers to discharge specified functions would rest upon formally constituted local committees. These committees would be elected by the teachers involved and complemented by representatives from parent-citizen groups. This measure of autonomy is essential to keep the system client-centered.

Some broad parameters must be defined. The individual and the group interest do differ. Certain courses would be more in the individual's interest to pursue than the more urgent priorities of small schools. Social priorities must be stated. For example, individualization of instruction in a four-room school might take precedence over an individual teacher's concern for Chaucer. At some point a course could be taken by a teacher but at individual expense. Some balance must be established between the interests of an individual and the regional group.

Much depends on a willingness by local school divisions to recognize many types of courses. Some courses should provide no credit in conventional college terms. One must recognize a distinction between the extrinsic and intrinsic value of a course offering to the participant. While the ideal would value any form of worthwhile activity, a practical reality would place a premium upon those with a dollar incentive.

ALTERNATIVES

Alternatives must be examined in terms of relationship questions: Who is the client? Who ultimately controls the consultant? Who establishes the priorities? What has been the organizational record to date?

The sad record of most universities in respect to examining, dianosing, and relieving the ills of rural teachers has been noted. Generally, state departments of education have suffered the same fate in the utilization of their consultants. Administrations in school divisions, too, frequently become identified with other issues than those springing out of the participation of classroom teachers. The comparatively new form of educational organization--regional laboratories--has proven to be of varied value.

Interagency coordination invariably rests at a low level. Overlaps in jurisdiction, gaps in existing services, professional jealousies, and agency

ambitions continue. All serve to retard serious merging of effort. Creation of a superagency with an integrated approach to staff development has its own inherent problems in both formation and delivery.

Likely massive infusions of external dollars could force a fresh organizational balance in existing organizations. Still, attention to rural teacher development efforts would remain a minority in its total operations. Teams of three to four program consultants, plus secretarial assistance and travel funds, should approximate $120,000 for each region. Of more critical significance lies the redeployment of existing staff development funds plus an infusion of extra monies into this rural staff development effort.

SUMMARY

The proposal calls for a combination of vouchers and teacher-centered program development consultants. Attention would rest upon the needs of the teachers and their small school environment. While this direction requires extra resources, they should serve as a catalyst to create greater efficiency and effectiveness in existing programs.

The development aspect concentrates upon utilization of existing resources, both financial and human, in small rural communities. A search for fresh goals and alternatives among teachers hopefully will be translated into overall changes in the schools and communities where they live and work.

There are many dilemmas involved in the proposal. This paper should be compared to a bikini in that it covers the essential parts but leaves much to the imagination.

SECTION 2: FROM MODELS TO CONSIDERATIONS ON IMPLEMENTATION: DIVERSE VIEWPOINTS AND QUESTIONS

Educational models are points of departure for those planning and effecting change. Their value is their abstractness and comprehensiveness--the "big picture." Ultimately, they must be studied in the educational and societal context of the real world. No model should be transported in toto from one mind to another. This section provides some viewpoints on impediments to change and factors which must be dealt with prior to experimentation and implementation. Viewpoints herein are illustrative rather than comprehensive. The factors which are most critical vary from situation to situation.

An In-Service Approach to the Reluctant Learner

Walter Knipe and Clyde Morris

It should not be presumed that the approaches in these models, or any approach, can provide all the answers to the problems facing education. Even with the plethora of titles directed toward the solution of various crises, no substantial resolutions of long-standing difficulties have yet been effected. Evidence in support of this conclusion includes an increasing proportion of school dropouts and functional dropouts--the former representing 20 percent of the national student body, the latter perhaps more.

The dropout syndrome is not a problem; it is simply symptomatic of a more deeply rooted problem involving a complex of socio-economic factors whose origin (not cause) lies in the homes where general social antipathy and hostility breed and grow. Students without motivation do not come exclusively from backgrounds of socio-cultural-economic deprivation. Contrary to past patterns and rational expectations, an increasing proportion of reluctant students come from affluent parents who are professionally employed.

However, hazards encountered by the deprived have been dwelt on recently. Low-income, low aspirational levels, little encouragement, and sub-par physical and emotional environments are characteristic circumstances ascribed to the sources of a wide variety of social problems, including those of the public schools.

For nearly 40 years, the school has assumed a continually compounding degree of responsibility for tasks perhaps legitimately belonging within the province of other institutions. One such task is that of responding effectively to the reluctant and hostile learner. The problem--since 1920, when compulsory attendance laws had been adopted by all states--has been concerned with what to do with pupils who didn't want to be where they were--in school.

The monumental failure of the school system in meeting the needs of the young has been officially recorded for more than 70 years. From the Cardinal Principles of the Educational Policies Commission (E.P.C.) of 1898[1]--through the Harvard Report of 1939,[2] E.P.C.'s Education for All American Youth (1944),[3] the Conant Report,[4] the Coleman Report,[5] and the Jencks

[1]The Commission on Reorganization of Secondary Education, Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education, Bulletin 1918, No. 35 (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1918).
[2]The Harvard Committee, General Education in a Free Society (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1945).
[3]James Russell, Education For All American Youth, (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1944).
[4]James B. Conant, The American High School (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1959)

[5]James Samuel Coleman and others. Equality of Educational Opportunity. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1966.

Report[6]--failure has been the conclusion reached with respect to the efforts of the public schools.

The fault has been variously assigned to poor teachers, mediocre administration, limited funds, inadequate equipment, crowded facilities, lockstep curriculum, enforcement of middle-class values, traditional preservice teacher training for teachers, and a host of similar "causes" for the academic failure of a large number of the public school clientele.

In spite of the multi-billion dollar federal investment in education recorded since 1957, and despite the innovations of the past 15 years, the situation has persistently degenerated. The reluctant learner has become hostile, challenging the teacher, the system (the establishment), and the goals of society. This challenge, generally emotional and anti-intellectual, is placed within the toothless context of the school system's capacity to retaliate. Students from high schools down to elementary seem to understand that the school is a relatively powerless entity.

National publicity, sought by the social and educational "do-gooders" whose primary aim is to gain the confidence of the popular press, has vitiated the schools and, in the process, has carried the young along on the tide. The anti-school attack has done little to help the deprived and has done much to encourage them to remain so by decrying the evils of the system and its consequent failure.

The crux of the problem appears to be the unrealistic view, apparently embraced by educators and laymen alike, that the schools should be held fully responsible for virtually all of the nation's ills. The current term for this responsibility is "accountability." The task is impossible under current circumstances.

Perhaps the most promising approach to a more effective education is through the parents. Parental assistance and encouragement of their children is essential if there is to be a value placed on the basic skills necessary in society. Yet over the last 6 to 8 decades, no commensurate efforts have been made to relate effectively to the parents of the non-academically oriented child. At the present time, a model to improve rural education should offer an opportunity to involve parents in a process related to and part of the child's education. The rurality of a community actually increases the chance of success simply because of its smallness.

The attitude of a child can be a handicap if its form is one of hostility. This needs to be cooperatively thwarted by parents and teachers. The teachers' authority is under fire and, in some quarters, virtually non-existent. The more rural the community, the greater the teacher's authority, but that degree is diminishing. In-service education for teachers, which involves them directly with the parents, affords an opportunity to slow the trend. Perhaps, if parents better understood the law and the purpose, process, and content of education, progress could be made.

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[6]Christopher Jencks and David Riesman. The Academic Revolution Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday, 1968.

The school alone, even with every conceivable qualitative superiority, cannot achieve the task. Other institutions, particularly political and economic institutions, the church, and the family, must assume a share--a larger share than is presently evident.

A community consortium should be established which would include representatives from the church and family units and those with expertise in local politics and economics to work with the school to study closely and carefully the problems of reluctant and hostile learners. It is an absolute necessity for all people involved to recognize that the problem is far from being the exclusive province of the school system. We must attack the cause, not merely the symptoms. School problems are symptomatic of global problems--not the cause. The hostile learner is symptomatic of a global problem--most assuredly not the cause.

Education is a right and, by state laws, compulsory. If parents choose to send their children to public school, their claim to the right must be matched by a commensurate responsibility to see to it that their children make every reasonable effort to learn.

Educational responsibility in the school setting must be divided among all involved entities. If education re-evaluation and re-development are to succeed, and really solve the crisis in education created by the "hostile" learner, then all segments of the community must be involved to achieve this goal.

Power: A Consideration in In-Service Education

Lionel Orlikow

Power: A Consideration in In-Service Education

Definitions

Power: The authority to instruct others to follow one's own intent.

Resources: Time, job promotion, dollars to in-service, job placement, people, etc.

The models exhibit a confidence that the private interests of individual teachers somehow combine to produce the public or general interest. Thus, they concentrate upon drawing up various mechanisms to facilitate the self-development of the individual teacher.

Unfortunately, only limited resources are available to an administrator to reconcile a host of disparate priorities. His administrative responsibilities to the public interest (as legitimized by elected representatives) could conflict with the interests of teachers in these areas:

1) Their desire for increased specialization (e.g., sociology) at a time of continuing pressure for generalists (e.g., the social sciences) in isolated rural schools; and

2) Their desire to pursue truly individualized programs (good for mobility out to urban centers) when they could be trained to undertake certain tasks commonly assumed by specialists in urban settings (e.g., diagnostic work in special education).

A general and continuing inadequacy of total resources in rural districts places even more pressure upon an administrator to ration very carefully those devoted to any in-service activities. While he or she can have only slight influence over externally funded projects undertaken outside normal school hours, major improvements in classroom instruction will come only when teachers receive concentrated amounts of time for development. The administrator has legal responsibility for the setting and implementation of a total package of improvement.

A major obstacle to the production of a truly locally centered program lies in the colonial situation of many rural areas. The power centers radiate their influence from urban locations--be they universities, teachers' organizations, or professional associations. This fact should continue as rural depopulation places that region in a continued state of underrepresentation.

Thus, rural groupings require brokers or advocates to negotiate their distinct interests. Assuming that fresh resources--external or internal--remain extremely limited, a sharp definition of power issues must be made. Relationships, evaluation rules, and career ladders are a few of the issues that would concern the operational activities of any broker or consultant.

For example, reliance upon the university has clear dangers: the premium placed upon research as distinct from development and teaching roles, the comfort of the urban seminar room as opposed to the discomfort of regular travel to outlying points, and the overall inadequate record to date in rural development in education.

Significant breaks in the colonialist mentality can come with categorized grants to rural groups in order to enable them to exploit opportunities to develop programs truly distinctive from those of urban centers. Confidence gained with a few successes would facilitate the process of developing local potential.

Conflict in interests must be explicit. Although many issues in rural education are similar across regions and even countries, differences in interests must be stressed if only to balance the many informal pressures towards homogeneity sought by the power center.

To cite one, the lay community remains a necessary but cloudy and potentially explosive grouping, for it must be obvious that extra resources for staff development must be ultimately legitimized by the body politic. For in the final analysis, any extra effort on its part would mean dollars for released time for regular teachers from classes.

Unfortunately, identification of community expectations does not automatically lead to a common front. A truly articulated lay group actually could work in direct opposition to professionals (state, district, and local). For example, in any priorization of total government programs, the community could rank education per se (much less staff development or teacher welfare) lower than health, recreation, or housing.

The current fad about needs assessment also contains an educational logic at variance with political logic. National and state experience demonstrates that it has been more in the interest of political leadership to keep goals fuzzy and general. Over time, this diffusiveness enables political leaders to remain loose and not tied to specifics. Thus, the particular level or degree of specificity in goal-setting would be difficult to define.

The analysis of community power also underlines the need to examine power in terms of horizontal (as, community to superintendent) and vertical (as, state department to district office) relationships. Each center has its distinctive constituency and therefore a different interpretation of what is the best public interest. It is debatable whether the university has the neutrality and objectivity to legitimize a vehicle to facilitate consensus among these divergent groups. Models of change must be extremely complex. Only a variety of alternative strategies with alternative centers of power can affect change in staff development among divergent regions. The range of agencies in addition to universities include state education departments, community development agencies, and a consortia of school districts.

Conclusion: A scarcity of resources underlines the need to examine power as it determines allocation issues. The above brief comments underline the need to provide this balance in the models presented.

Feasibility of the Models: Comparison Factors

Ronald Stastney and Ronald Broeker

Feasibility of the Models: Comparison Factors

INTRODUCTION

- *CO*st Factors
- *M*otivation
- *P*ower *A*ssociations
- *R*oles
- *E*valuation

Several prototypes have been presented to stimulate the further development of alternatives in the training of teachers in rural America. Yet there are many feasibility questions that need to be discussed before the administrator of a local or state education agency can be convinced that a model will be effective:

1. Considering the plight of the local and state education agencies, is the model economically feasible?

2. Realizing active teacher involvement as one prerequisite for success, how are teachers motivated?

3. Knowing that change requires clearance through bureaucracy, what power relationships need to be identified and utilized?

4. Analyzing such a complex project, what role development is needed to produce a functioning program?

5. Believing in accountability, what kinds of evaluation are needed in both process and product?

COST

Cost factors relate to the efficiency and effectiveness of a system and/or program. If school boards and administrators can be shown that for "x" number of dollars invested, a certain result will occur, the system and/or program becomes more feasible. For example, if teachers are given released time, what benefits will accrue? Are teachers expected to share some of the costs for in-service education? If a model is widely adopted, will costs decrease as more users become involved? Are credits from colleges and universities granted? If so, how will this affect salary schedules? Will resultant incremental increases in salary imbalance the budget?

MOTIVATION

Local education agencies (LEA's) are not in a position to fund totally an in-service program. If assistance is to come from the state education agencies (SEA's), a reordering of priorities will have to occur. State legislatures, who bear considerable responsibility in this area, will ask, Why should school personnel take additional education? One motivating factor for teachers is that additional coursework is often a contractual stipulation. Or, in-service education is a state recommendation affecting the classification of schools. Or, idealistically, teachers and administrators through a process of self-evaluation will arrive at some "felt needs." Professional personnel are or should be intrinsically motivated. If a model offers meaningful alternatives, the success factor is enhanced.

POWER

Some states have developed certification based upon competency. Other state legislatures should consider this alternative and in doing so, authorize the expenditure of funds to assist LEA's. Again, priorities will have to be reordered and power relationships considered: education is legally a state responsibility but a local function.

All agencies seem to agree that the teacher is the curriculum. To change programs meaningfully and for any duration, people need to be changed. How do each of the "power hats" relate? Will contradictory directives confuse and frustrate? Or, will the various powers be given appropriate and meaningful input so that their commitment will be more likely? Will statutory limitations reduce the input of some groups to the inane level of advisory capacities?

ROLES

Thus, a clear definition of roles is necessary. Teachers are in the front lines, and teacher organizations should be involved from the very beginning. In-service education must address what teachers can actually use and implement immediately. Diffused decision making at the local school level is essential. The principal and superintendent are the educational leaders. They and the community must be cognizant of their roles while making assessments.

State and federal agency roles also need clear-cut guidelines. Total imposition of outside agencies' opinions would surely destroy some of the creativity and uniqueness at the local level. And yet, it is unlikely that massive funding will occur without some guides and fiscal accounting procedures.

The counselor-mentor role is delicate but essential. Some principals are able to assume this function even though they also perform administrative duties. In other cases, a principal dealing directly with teachers

on a confidential basis would produce suspicions--if not downright distrust. Yet the national associations of administrators and principals clearly believe that anything going on within their schools is within their purview. The administrator is where the buck stops, and all programs are finally evaluated and justified by the school board and its appointed administrators.

EVALUATION

A final area of concern in implementing the models is evaluation--both of product and process. The models, with some level of sophistication, deal with evaluation and program justification. Local and statewide needs--and certainly national or at least regional needs--will have to be assessed, and goals and objectives will need to be promulgated in some priority ranking. Monitoring the realization of these goals and objectives should follow, and constant re-evaluation will be essential. The enunciation of such goals and objectives, through appropriate processes, will require massive in-service education and thorough and continuous consultations.

Basically, the descrepancy between where we are and where we want to go in rural education requires a massive undertaking. Much that we as individuals cherish will be re-evaluated and questioned. Some segments of rural education will stand the test and remain relatively intact. Other segments will change if sufficient evidence and commitment are present. Such change will, of necessity, be reflected in administrative structures at all levels. Our challenge is productive change to bring a better opportunity to all of rural America.

Points on In-Service and Preservice Education

Martha Wei

Points on In-Service and Preservice Education

Teachers in service have several specific needs. They need information about in-service education and funds for it. They require programs for alternative action--idea assistance from universities and local, state, and federal governments. Finally, they need local autonomy in program design, community action (for example, self-education through reading, discussion, and exploration could lead to requests for in-service education), and the design of activities for self-improvement.

The local university or school system can provide a service to teachers, who need support when problems continue to arise after preservice training. For example, sabbatical leave and other rotating leave opportunities should be available for teachers. One leave opportunity that could be worked out at minimal cost is an in-service and preservice exchange of teachers and pre-teachers. Local universities or districts should also work more for peer exchange and visiting for stimulation provided through teacher and principal substitutes, team situations, and aides.

Teacher centers, developed at local sites in universities and school district offices (as well as at the state and national level), could serve both preservice and in-service teachers and provide some continuity in the course of study. Input and output could come from in-service and preservice people and lead to a cross-fertilization of ideas. Ideally, there could be a meeting of minds from the university and departments of education through working to make these centers. The center can provide materials, laboratories, and a lending library of books, materials, and current literature.

To provide stimulation through diverse experiences, however, in-service education does not have to be (and perhaps should not be) primarily local. A national in-service effort best serves individual teacher needs (local, national, and international) by providing broad avenues (publications and money) to many opportunities for teachers. To have all programs boxed neatly into a pat number of schemes is deadening to innovative thinking.

State and national organizations (such as the National Education Association, ERIC, and federal and state governments) can provide extensive information in journals, leaflets, newspapers, and other publications to inform principals and teachers of new ideas. These materials should include information for teachers about the local university's latest programs and about various programs throughout the country. There should be more emphasis on the total U.S. picture.

The Surplus of Educational Personnel

Edward Krahmer

It is relatively easy for school districts to utilize the personnel surplus as substitute teachers in order to free classroom teachers to attend in-service programs. It is recognized, however, that substitute teachers cost money that schools do not have and also that the substitute is not viewed as offering an educationally sound program because of the one-day-in and next-day-out approach.

The resident substitute is an attempt to overcome the latter handicap of the substitute approach. The resident substitute could be a contracted staff member of the school district who would normally function within a differentiated staff until required to serve as a substitute. In this event the resident substitute would assist in the classroom activities for a few days or longer so that the children would not suffer when the classroom teacher was absent. The teacher would tend to be absent for a period of days or weeks for a more extensive and/or intensive in-service experience.

The final approach is the use of an internship program of any of several varieties as a means of furthering educational improvement including the in-service education of teachers. The interns might be graduate degree-seeking students or paid undergraduate students. However, the personnel surplus suggests a new variety patterned after the medical intern. Why not require a new teacher with a bachelors degree to spend at least one year in a minimally paid internship? The intern could function like a resident substitute in a differentiated staffing pattern. This internship would provide a more realistic basis than a 10- to 15-week student teaching experience for a student (intern)/supervisory decision as to whether the student (intern) should continue in the teaching profession.

Evaluation of a Model

Edward Krahmer and Chester Hausken

Evaluation of a Model

The evaluation of a proposed model should emphasize the collection and analysis of information and/or data to support decision making about various aspects of the model. To facilitate implementation and "debugging" of the model, the evaluation plan must meet at least two sets of criteria. First, it must provide the agency testing the model with a format for determining how well the model works and for identifying specific weaknesses and limitations of the model. Secondly, it must make clear to agencies or groups who might want to implement the model the weaknesses and strengths under given conditions.

During its initial use the feasibility of the model is examined. In this exploratory state, the model is employed with a limited number of potential users under simulated conditions. It may be revised rather drastically or may even be discarded as unfeasible.

Feasibility focuses on questions such as

1. Have all necessary components of the model been identified?

2. What combination of components would be most acceptable to the target population and yet give the best chance of achieving the goals of the model?

3. What factors of cost, maintenance, efficiency, and adaptability are considered?

4. What are the anticipated outcomes of the model?

5. What instrumentation is needed to provide sufficient decision-making information?

6. What instrumentation is needed for internal evaluation?

If resources are available for further revisions of the model, a second phase of testing could be implemented. This would focus more on the consistency within the model and would investigate whether or not all aspects of the program function together satisfactorily as a unit and whether or not the instrumentation provides enough data for decisions. It would also investigate limitations encountered in implementing the model.

INTERNAL EVALUATION

Evaluation also involves an internal component, which assesses the effects of the in-service program on the educators involved. The internal evaluation component should incorporate the following elements: a) assess-

ment, b) pre- and post-testing, and c) reassessment.

Assessment itself involves two phases. The first is the traditional needs assessment which requires a literature survey to determine what information exists on the in-service needs of teachers. Depending upon what has already been accomplished, it might be necessary to determine the priorities for in-service education and the degree to which the priorities are met in order that critical concerns might be identified. The second phase is an assessment of individual teacher needs. It is recommended that this assessment be criterion-referenced, based upon the priorities for in-service education identified in the first phase. The results should be a determination of what the individual teacher's needs are for in-service education.

Once the educator enters an in-service program--hopefully a program based on an individual assessment--testing is an obvious element. Testing should include both self- and instructor-measurement on both a pre- and post-test basis. The pre-test can provide a baseline against which to measure improvement and the means of determining where the teacher should enter the in-service program. The post-test provides the measure of improvement, which is the basis for an educator earning credit and gaining in self-confidence. Either norm-referenced or criterion-referenced testing can be applied; however, the latter is recommended.

Reassessment is required on an individual and group basis. The group assessment will determine when formerly identified critical needs have been stabilized and resources can be directed to other needs. Individual assessment will determine where the educator will next direct his limited time for in-service education.

Internal and external evaluation both influence program modifications or revisions through operational experience. Particularly, the data secured by the pre- and post-testing should prove useful in arriving at a determination of the areas of weaknesses in the in-service program.

SECTION 3: DESCRIPTIONS OF EXISTING PROGRAMS

In-Service education for rural teachers is not a new phenomenon. Educational leaders in school districts, state departments of education, and universities have attempted to answer the isolated teacher's needs in a variety of ways.

The following descriptions illustrate this variety. Yet the programs all have two characteristics in common: each program serves a large number of remotely based teachers (often in a wide geographic area) and the programs are brought to the teachers at the local sites. Like the models presented earlier, these programs attempt to overcome the particular restrictions rural teachers experience.

This section--because of the enormous task involved in searching out programs--is illustrative rather than comprehensive. All programs which came to the attention of the Clearinghouse and which fulfilled the above requirements were included; we regret any inadvertent omissions. The descriptions are listed by geographic region--eastern, central, and western United States.

Eastern United States

SPONSOR: Florida State Department of Education, Tallahassee, Florida

LOCATION: Individual school districts

CONTENT: In 1968, the State Board of Education made it possible for each school district or county to develop a master plan for in-service teacher education. In addition to providing each district with the opportunity to develop its own program of staff development, this program--when approved by the State Commissioner of Education--also enables the teacher to extend his or her certificate.

Available to the school districts are individualized teacher education modules, which enable a teacher to work at his or her own pace and at a convenient time. The 54 modules, field tested by educators in 10 districts, cover teaching aide training, planning skills, presentation skills, classroom procedures, questioning skills, assessment of students, special skills, and assessment of staff development. The modules are comprised of booklets, consumable materials, and audiovisual materials.

Several counties have worked cooperatively to develop and implement in-service activities on common in-service days. These days are scheduled throughout the school year when students are not in attendance.

TUITION: Not specified

CREDIT: Available toward extension of certificate

CONTACT: John W. W. Patrick, Educational Personnel Development, Florida Department of Education, Tallahassee, Florida 32304 (For purchase of modules, write to Panhandle Area Educational Cooperative, P.O. Drawer 190, Chipley, Florida 32428.)

* * * *

SPONSOR: Nova University, Fort Lauderdale, Florida

LOCATION: U.S. (As of July 1972 the program was limited to 23 "clusters" or geographical areas. Immediate expansion to 32 clusters is planned; post-1974 expansion to encompass the country is anticipated.)

CONTENT: This new national 3-year off-campus program is called "The National Ed.D. Program for Educational Leaders." The program

allows for the formulation of a pattern and pace to pursue a doctoral degree that will not interrupt the individual's employment.

The cluster program incorporates five basic components: independent study, local seminars, on-campus institutes, field practicums, and competency examinations. The basic design of the program is for the participant to work alone and with his colleagues in his vicinity under the supervision of a local cluster coordinator. Study guides and additional materials selected by the coordinators and national lecturers are made available to the participant. Once a month a national lecturer in a particular discipline visits with the participant and a cluster of fellow doctoral candidates for an intensive all-day seminar. Funds are provided for local consultants to meet with clusters to pursue topics in greater depth. Coordinators and participants share the decision as to whom should be involved. The local seminars concentrate on the subject matter in the study guides.

Participants are required to attend two of the institutions at Nova University which are held each of the three years. A field practicum is also expected of the participant as he works in each of the eight areas of competence he is required to master (finance, curriculum development, supervision, education policy systems, evaluation, resources for improving education, managing the school, and technology and systems management). The practicum involves choosing an actual school administrative problem with which the participant is confronted on his job, analyzing its causes, and arriving at a practical solution through implementing a course of action. The required dissertation is often an outgrowth of the practicums.

To enroll in the program it is necessary to have a) a school administrative license or other credentials, b) a master's degree from an accredited institution, c) current employment in a school leadership capacity, and d) letters of recommendation.

TUITION: There is a $200 deposit required with the application form, plus a $25 non-refundable processing fee. Tuition is $1,500 each study year, payable at the time of acceptance but not later than the first meeting of the cluster. Travel costs to attend the national institutes at Nova are the only additional expenditure for candidates. (Study guides and additional materials are usually mailed to the candidates' homes at no cost.) The tuition covers the time the candidate is working on competency requirements. After that, there is a special maintenance fee to cover the time needed to complete the dissertation.

Participants are eligible for federally insured loans. The program is also approved for Veterans Administration educational assistance allowances on a 27 credit hour per year basis.

CREDIT: Ed.D. degree

CONTACT: Abraham S. Fischler, President, Nova University, College Avenue, Fort Lauderdale, Florida 33314; 305-587-6660

* * * *

SPONSOR: University of Florida, College of Education, Division of Continuing Education, Gainesville, Florida

LOCATION: Individual school districts, both in and out of the state

CONTENT: In rural areas of Florida and beyond, University of Florida professors help with in-service teacher training. Upon request, professors from appropriate departments in the College of Education visit with rural school administrators and teachers to analyze their needs with them. Following this initial contact, a series of workshops or meetings between school and College of Education personnel is arranged for by the Division of Continuing Education. If a district does not have sufficient funds budgeted, the Division staff will help plan alternatives, such as sharing services with another county. If rural school personnel request a credit course, University of Florida staff members will travel to teach night courses (provided there are at least 15 people in the class). The University has already served schools outside Florida, especially with consultants and workshops for which there is no out-of-state tuition.

TUITION: For credit courses, there is a tuition.

CREDIT: Available

CONTACT: Bob N. Gage, Assistant Dean for Continuing Education, Room 178, Norman Hall, University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida 32601; 904-392-6795

* * * *

SPONSOR: Appalachian Training Complex which is hosted by Appalachian State University, Boone, North Carolina

LOCATION: Mountain school districts in northwestern North Carolina and the Training Complex.

CONTENT: The Training Complex is engaged in retraining administrators, teachers, and aides. The emphasis is on training them in the real world--using schools in the region as educational laboratories

instead of the University campus. Needs analyses and program decisions are made cooperatively, involving at various times local staff development committees, the University, area junior colleges, the State Department of Public Instruction, Teacher Corps, and Triple T. The Training Complex itself serves as a catalyst and coordinator of planning and resources. Generally, a project which concentrates on a particular innovation is developed in a school, and this school then serves as a training center for other schools in several regions. The Training Complex has also arranged for administrator and custodian workshops, a full-time reading specialist who works in each school system, short-term teacher training institutes, and numerous other programs. New programs are constantly being explored and when feasible implemented.

TUITION: Financing is cooperatively shared by the school districts, regional junior colleges, Appalachian State University, U.S. Office of Education, North Carolina State Department of Public Instruction, and foundation grants.

CREDIT: Available

CONTACT: John S. Reynolds, Director, Training Complex, Appalachian State University, Boone, North Carolina 28607

* * * *

SPONSOR: North Carolina Department of Public Instruction, Raleigh, North Carolina

LOCATION: Ten school districts in northeastern North Carolina

CONTENT: The Pilot Regional Staff Development Coordination Project provides leadership and administrative services for the planning, implementation, and evaluation of staff development activities and programs in northeastern North Carolina. The project was formed to compensate for certain disadvantages experienced by the districts: a) limited central office staffs for planning and administering staff development activities, b) isolation in terms of geography and access to institutions of higher education, c) difficulties in organizing in-service classes of adequate size in individual administrative units to meet some of the more pressing needs, and d) inadequate planning capacity for developing proposals to secure funding for more innovative programs.

TUITION: Not specified

CREDIT: Not specified

CONTACT: James Patrick Harrell, Regional In-Service Coordinator, Edenton-Chowan Schools, Edenton, North Carolina 27932

* * * *

SPONSOR: Lehigh Regional Consortium for Graduate Teacher Education, Bethlehem, Pennsylvania. Member institutions: Allentown College, Beaver College, Lehigh University, Marywood College, Moravian College, and Wilkes College

LOCATION: Individual school districts

CONTENT: The involvement of the Consortium in in-service activities is quite recent. Activities engaged in thus far are outlined below:

1. The Consortium is planning a limited number of cooperative activities between its institutions and local school districts or intermediate units to bring in-service experiences to local teachers.

2. Extensive conversations with school district superintendents and intermediate unit directors resulted in the identification of a number of topics of concern to basic education personnel. To date, the project is primarily in the discussion and review stage.

3. One pilot project, involving faculty from several member institutions and outside consultant/lecturers, brings graduate credit to the teachers involved. The project has aided the Consortium in working out many of the details regarding credit transfer and registration that will be part of any in-service work in the future.

4 State department of education personnel are ready to assist with the development of projects carrying state certification credit but not graduate credit. So far no district has opted for this alternative.

TUITION: Not specified

CREDIT: Available; see outline of activities

CONTACT: Frederick Baus III, Executive Director, Lehigh Regional Consortium for Graduate Teacher Education, Lehigh University, Bethlehem, Pennsylvania 18015

* * * *

SPONSOR: The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, Pennsylvania

LOCATION: Rural Pennsylvania

CONTENT: A mobile van equipped for computer-assisted instruction brings a course in special education to teachers in Appalachian Pennsylvania who cannot return to campus. The course, called CARE (Computer-Assisted Remedial Education), enables teachers to

recognize and help children in regular classrooms who have handicaps that often go undetected. The van is equipped with a central IBM computer instructional system with 15 student terminals. In effect, it offers private tutoring for each teacher at hours convenient to his or her schedule. Most teachers complete the course in about 30 hours; however, individual times have ranged from 20 to 70 hours. By July 1972, over 2,100 teachers in 12 Pennsylvania towns had completed the course.

The van requires a small staff. A systems manager travels around the State with it and at each stop hires a systems operator to help keep the equipment working smoothly and two proctors to help teachers schedule their sessions and set up for each lesson.

The cost of a year's operation, paid for by the U.S. Office of Education, is approximately $250,000. The current project will run to mid-1973.

TUITION: Not specified

CREDIT: Three credits toward a permanent teaching certificate and advanced degree

CONTACT: Harold E. Mitzel, Associate Dean for Research, College of Education, The Pennsylvania State University, 277 Chambers Building, University Park, Pennsylvania 16802; 814-865-2525

* * * *

SPONSOR: Clemson University, College of Education, Office of Educational Services, Clemson, South Carolina

LOCATION: Individual school districts

CONTENT: Off-campus courses for teacher education are taught by members of the Clemson faculty in facilities furnished by the school district. These courses are either regular Clemson courses needed by the teachers in a district or courses designed to meet a specific need. Often such courses are offered as part of a new program in a district; for example, a 3-year series of curriculum development courses form part of the "Oakway Project"--an effort to improve the educational effectiveness of a small rural school in Oconee County, South Carolina.

All off-campus courses are arranged after the College has received a request from the school district. A Memorandum of Agreement between Clemson and the school district spells out the details of course number and title, facilities, etc. A Clemson instructor is appointed to teach the class, and a

Clemson representative meets with members of the class to handle registration, graduate applications, etc. At no time are students required to travel to the main campus to complete the course.

In addition to the contract programs with school districts, Clemson has a cooperative arrangement with several small, church-related, liberal arts colleges by which the latter offer courses and Clemson awards credit. Clemson also offers master's degree programs for teachers at Greenwood, South Carolina--about 60 miles from Clemson. Teachers may earn a master's degree at Greenwood without ever visiting the main campus. Registration, counseling, and other needs are provided at Greedwood by Clemson staff members. Courses are taught by Clemson faculty, who maintain office hours at the Greenwood facility for the convenience of the area graduate students.

TUITION: Not specified

CREDIT: Teachers can receive either undergraduate or graduate credit of 3 semester hours for each off-campus course. Currently the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools limits the number of off-campus credits that may be used toward a degree to 12. However, this requirement is being revised.

CONTACT: Myrton A. Packer, Coordinator, Educational Services, Clemson University, Clemson, South Carolina 29631

* * * *

SPONSOR: Austin Peay State University, Clarksville, Tennessee

LOCATION: Individual school districts in middle Tennessee and southern Kentucky and the Center for Teachers at the University

CONTENT: The Center for Teachers is a service organization designed to meet the needs of preservice teachers of science and mathematics at Austin Peay and the in-service teachers of science and mathematics in a 10,000 square mile region of non-urban middle Tennessee and southern Kentucky. The major programs of the Center are based upon needs as identified by teachers and administrators. They are implemented by providing activities to meet these needs as well as physical and financial support. Coordinated, professional assistance and large amounts of basic and advanced teaching aids are available to teachers in 21 school systems in the areas of biology, chemistry, earth science, environmental sciences, mathematics, and physics.

Specific methods of assistance vary but, in general, include the following: one-week institutes in which a teacher works on topics of his choice under the supervision of a professor from

that content area; one-day in-service workshops either in the school or in the Center's facilities; free consultant service in each school at least three times each year (more if requested); an equipment loan system; a reference and resource library for teachers' use; and a media production center in which teachers learn to produce their own visual aids. In general, an attempt is made to fill any request made by a teacher or administrator in the service region.

TUITION: Not specified

CREDIT: Available

CONTACT: John Czirr, Director, The Center for Teachers, Austin Peay State University, Clarksville, Tennessee 37040

* * * *

SPONSOR: Little Tennessee Valley Educational Cooperative, Alcoa, Tennessee

LOCATION: Not specified

CONTENT: The Cooperative is beginning the design of rural in-service teacher education programs. Plans are not expected to be finalized until spring 1973; however, certain directions were apparent at press time. The Cooperative, working with the Tennessee State Department of Education and the University of Tennessee, is concerned with serving large numbers of teachers. Vehicles for accomplishing this goal, such as traveling teacher educators, video tape, and correspondence courses, are envisioned. The programs will include administrator training, community education, early childhood education, and programs designed to meet individual and community needs as they are identified by continuing surveys.

TUITION: Not specified

CREDIT: Not specified

CONTACT: William O. Oakes, Executive Director, Little Tennessee Valley Educational Cooperative, Alcoa Education Building, Faraday Street, Alcoa, Tennessee 37701; 615-984-5010

* * * *

SPONSOR: Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, College of Education, Division of Curriculum and Instruction, Blacksburg, Virginia

LOCATION: Appalachian area of Virginia

CONTENT: Three prototype staff development programs are currently in operation. Wise County Project, operating under a subcontract with the Urban/Rural School Development Council in Wise County, Virginia, provides technical assistance and graduate course programming tailored to meet the needs of elementary school teachers in Wise County. At its conclusion in 1975, 75 teachers, 3 principals, and 15-20 teacher aides will have earned credits toward their next highest degree. The teachers will have earned the master's degree in a program designed to meet specific measurable criteria in terms of student performance and attitude modification. The University is locating two full-time faculty members on-site for the duration of the project and supplementing instruction with program personnel and other resources from the University, located 180 miles away.

Over the past 18 months, the University has enrolled elementary principals and assistant principals from 25 schools in southwestern Virginia in its Principal Externship Program. The program is intended to upgrade leadership skills, identify needs, select alternative instructional strategies, implement programs designed to address identified needs, and evaluate outcomes of programs utilizing Title I funds. The program was funded under Title I, ESEA, to provide specific information for target school administrators on how to cope with large numbers of economically disadvantaged. Under the program, principals and assistant principals were kept on the job, meeting once monthly for a 2-day period to address the program highlights outlined above. During the summer, these same principals came to the campus for 3 weeks of intensive training during which University personnel and resources were utilized. During the regular year, one full-time staff member from the University visited each participant on a weekly basis to reinforce previous planning and provide direction and consultant assistance in working with staff members. In addition, over 30 consultants came to work with the participants, usually spending 4 or 5 days in regional seminars, workshops, and demonstration activities. (An evaluation report is available.)

On September 1, 1972, the University initiated the first Cooperative Teacher Education Center in Southwestern Virginia. It is a prototype for five additional centers which will be created and become operational in the fall of 1973. While this Center concentrates on undergraduate education, it also delivers related graduate course work to interested cooperating teachers in the Center district.

TUITION: Not specified

CREDIT: See individual project descriptions

CONTACT: Wayne M. Worner, Director, Division of Curriculum and Instruction, College of Education, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, Blacksburg, Virginia 24061

* * * *

Central United States

SPONSOR: University of Arkansas, Fayetteville, Arkansas

LOCATION: Rural school districts in Arkansas

CONTENT: Project CHILD, in its second year of operation, is operated by the Boston Mountains Cooperative of Prairie Grove. The other members are Elkins, Farmington, Greenland, St. Paul, and West Fork. The thrust of the program is the individualization of elementary education through packets. In-service education is handled by a curriculum coordinator employed in each cooperating school aided by a full-time consultant from the university who works in the schools. This staff member conducts instruction on site, and credit has been obtainable from the University for those teachers who needed it.

A second endeavor, Project VAN, has just begun. It consists of four portable vocational classrooms shared by four schools: Prairie Grove, West Fork, Paris, and Charleston. The vans, assigned on a rotating one-semester basis are equipped to teach machine shop, refrigeration, construction, and electronics. In-service education for the teachers concerned is conducted by the Ozark Regional Vocational-Technical School.

Projected for next fall is a plan to upgrade the high schools in the Buffalo River Cooperative of Jasper. (The Cooperative also encompasses Deer, Mt. Judea, St. Paul, Kingston, Western Grove, and the Newton County school district.) The goal is to bring the secondary schools up to an A accreditation rating through shared services, staff, and equipment, as well as individualized instruction. It is currently projected that in-service education will be carried on in a similar fashion to Project CHILD, that is, by key personnel in the cooperating districts plus University consultants working in the field.

TUITION: Not specified

CREDIT: Available

CONTACT: Martin W. Schoppmeyer, Professor of Education, Educational Administration and Research, University of Arkansas, Fayetteville, Arkansas 72701

* * * *

SPONSOR: Kansas State Teachers College, Emporia, Kansas

LOCATION: Off-campus

CONTENT: In 1971-72 the College conducted 42 off-campus classes in education. These classes provided face-to-face contact with staff in the School of Education and Psychology. Most of these classes were conducted in rural areas. The College expects to conduct approximately an equal number of off-campus classes this year.

In addition, the Teacher Corps project at the campus is working wholly with teachers in rural areas. A great portion of staff time is devoted to consultations with rural teachers, administrators, and school board members. The Teacher Corps staff also conducts seminars for teachers and administrators.

TUITION: Not specified

CREDIT: Not specified

CONTACT: L. H. Fritzemeier, Director, Continuing and International Education, Kansas State Teachers College, 1200 Commercial Street, Emporia, Kansas 66801; 316-343-1200

* * * *

SPONSOR: Central Michigan University, Mount Pleasant, Michigan

LOCATION: Individual school districts in 38 countries in northern lower Michigan

CONTENT: The University has a large off-campus education program which in winter 1973 reached into 51 locations. The University also offers credit courses via television through its own facilities and commercial stations (such as the Sun Rise Semester programs). In addition to formal classes, there are seminars, workshops, conferences, and conventions--both credit and non-credit, on and off campus. The University will also teach formal credit courses almost anywhere there is a demand for them (providing it is financially feasible).

TUITION: Not specified

CREDIT: Three graduate credits for most off-campus courses

CONTACT: J. D. Marcus, Dean of Off-Campus Education, Central Michigan University, Mount Pleasant, Michigan 48858

* * * *

SPONSOR: Madonna College, Livonia, Michigan

LOCATION: Individual school districts

CONTENT: The College offers "Improve Your School Program and Earn Credit" (Education 420/In-Service School Projects). Applicants for this course are to select their own course title, formulate objectives, and propose an outline. The course can include committee work, the organization of individualized programs, and on-the-job research or activity. Consultative assistance is available, either through telephone conferences or on-site visitations from college staff. Evaluation is based on the attainment of objectives.

TUITION: $37.00 per semester hour, $3.00 recording fee for non-matriculated students, and $5.00 general fee

CREDIT: One, two, or three semester hours

CONTACT: Chairman, Education Department, Madonna College, 36600 Schoolcraft Road, Livonia, Michigan 48150; 313-425-8000

* * * *

SPONSOR: Southwest Missouri State College, Springfield, Missouri

LOCATION: Individual school districts

CONTENT: The College has had on occasion, and anticipates more, extension courses planned primarily for personnel in a specific school district. The College has had as many as three or four of these courses in a semester. The extension courses are designed to upgrade the personnel in the school district and provide courses in the area of vocational education, especially for the non-degree vocational, technical, industrial, journeyman-level teachers who exist in such programs.

In addition, a few professors travel to the rural areas and teach classes or have extensive field programs within a course that is taught partly on campus and partly some place else. The faculty has also been involved in local workshops that are federally or locally funded in some of the rural school districts, especially in the area of the teaching of reading. A program as exemplary by the College is in Nixa, Missouri.

TUITION: Not specified

CREDIT: Not specified

CONTACT: Patrick O. Copley, Dean of Education, Southwest Missouri State College, Springfield, Missouri 65802; 417-869-9101

* * * *

SPONSOR: University of Missouri, College of Education and Extension Division, Columbia, Missouri

LOCATION: Individual school districts

CONTENT: The University's continuing education program for rural school personnel has several dimensions. These include regular courses (mostly at the graduate level taught in remote locations, courses for credit designed to meet special needs and taught in remote locations, and in-service workshops in local districts. The University also offers consultation, problem-solving, and curricular methods evaluation in local districts; special, practitioner-oriented monographs on topics and issues of special interest; and short-term (2-week) summer institutes for graduate credit. Methods vary with exigencies and needs. All instruction is departmentally based.

TUITION: Funds are provided by the Extension Division to the College of Education so that continuing education services can be provided for practicing educators. These allocated funds are supplemented by fees generated to cover costs in excess of appropriated funds.

CREDIT: Available

CONTACT: Bob G. Woods, Dean, College of Education, University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri 65201 or Charles H. Koelling, Director of Continuing Education, University of Missouri, 101 Hill Hall, Columbia, Missouri 65201

* * * *

SPONSOR: Regional Education Service Centers, Texas

LOCATION: Individual schools districts and the Centers

CONTENT: The Regional Education Service Centers in Texas offer cooperative, multi-district in-service programs for school personnel. The Centers, originally established as sources for media, now include the demonstration of new approaches to learning and in-service workshops in their activities.

Their role is partially due to their connection with the State Board of Education; for example, the Centers help implement changes required by legislation. However, they also respond to local needs and will identify in-service problems, group them geographically, arrange for training personnel, and offer workshops at the Service Centers or at local sites. In addition, the Centers assist small groups of school personnel who want to try new strategies.

TUITION: Not specified

CREDIT: Not specified

CONTACT: Information derived from "Regional In-Service Programs in Texas," Theory Into Practice, 11:232-35; October 1972. The article was written by Mack W. Mullins of Region XII Education Service Center, Waco, Texas.

* * * *

SPONSOR: Stephen F. Austin State University, Division of Continuing Education, Nacogdoches, Texas

LOCATION: Individual rural school districts in eastern Texas or the University

CONTENT: The programs are usually of the following three types:

1. A regular graduate course for credit is taught at an individual school. The content of the course is adapted to the needs and characteristics of the school. The instructor may or may not conduct follow-up activities with the teachers beyond class time.

2. A special in-service program is designed by the University in cooperation with the local school officials. University faculty members conduct the program on a consultant basis. The program usually includes lectures, demonstrations, and individual consultation.

3. Teachers from rural schools are transported to the University campus for special programs. These programs are usually developed around a facility on the campus such as a reading clinic or driver education facility.

The subject and content of the above programs are planned cooperatively with local school officials. Topics have included reading, curriculum development, individualization of instruction, early childhood education, black studies, and various content disciplines.

TUITION: The charges for the programs are based upon cost; the University does not make a profit.

CREDIT: Not specified

CONTACT: Dwane Russell, Director, Division of Continuing Education, P.O. Box 6111, SFA Station, Nacogdoces, Texas 75961.

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SPONSOR: Kansas Statewide Continuing Education Network. Member institutions: Fort Hays State College, Kansas State College of Pittsburg, Kansas State Teachers College, Kansas State University, University of Kansas, and Wichita State University

LOCATION: Individual school districts

CONTENT: Through the Network, classroom instruction is conducted via telephone lines which link classrooms in 23 Kansas communities. Voices are amplified so that the instructor and students can converse freely. Verbal instruction is supplemented in each of the classrooms by handout materials and use of standard audio-visual aids. A monitor is on duty in each Network classroom during enrollment and during each class period to operate the equipment, supervise enrollment and exams, and coordinate supplementary class materials. Graduate courses are among the Network's offerings.

TUITION: Enrollment fees are $22.00 per credit hour for graduate and $16.00 per hour for undergraduate credit.

CREDIT: Available

CONTACT: Ken Dieckhoff, Room 305, Umberger Hall, Kansas State University, Manhattan, Kansas 66506; 913-532-5562

* * * *

Western United States

SPONSOR: California State University, San Diego, Imperial Valley Campus, Calexico, California

LOCATION: Rural desert area around Calexico

CONTENT: The University offers a variety of short extension courses to meet specific needs in local areas. In addition, it has scheduled graduate programs (including those for teachers) around the long distance commuter. Some commuters travel as far as 120 miles to the campus. For example, it is possible for a person to come to campus on Tuesday and take 12 units. Likewise, a person can spend Friday night, all day Saturday, and Sunday afternoon and accumulate 12 units. Members of the faculty also act as consultants in a variety of curriculum and teaching projects.

TUITION: Yes

CREDIT: Available

CONTACT: Elmer D. Baldwin, Associate Dean, California State University, San Diego, Imperial Valley Campus, 720 Heber Avenue, Calexico, California 92231

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SPONSOR: Colorado Mountain College, Glenwood Springs, Colorado

LOCATION: Nine school districts surrounding the College

CONTENT: The College has received a 3-year Ford Foundation grant to operate a retraining program for rural teachers. The College and the Mountain Board of Cooperative Services, in cooperation with staff members from 4-year colleges and staff members from each of the participating schools, will jointly identify instructional needs, then conduct workshops, seminars, conferences, teacher exchange programs, and other in-service training opportunities as indicated by a survey of district and College needs. While outside resources, such as University personnel and consultants, would be called in when necessary or desirable, emphasis would be placed on developing means for information exchange and problem solving within the rural environment constituting the districts. Nationally, this program will serve as a model of cooperation for rural 2-year colleges and public school districts.

Each school or district will give emphasis to one or two related goals at a time. For example, one school district might explore reading improvements where traditional methods of remediation are not meeting problem needs. This might be followed with the development of a diagnostic-prescriptive program through the training of the present staff.

Course offerings could be developed throughout a wide area instead of being confined to a local school district, thus saving time and taxpayer money.

TUITION: Not specified

CREDIT: Not specified

CONTACT: Elbie L. Gann, President, Colorado Mountain College, West Campus, Glenwood Springs, Colorado 81601 (Project director to be announced)

* * * *

SPONSOR: Idaho State University, Pocatello, Idaho

LOCATION: Ten southeastern Idaho communities (American Falls, Arco, Fort Hall, Burley, Filer, Idaho Falls, Pocatello, Preston, Rupert, and Twin Falls)

CONTENT: "Teachers for the Rural World" is a competency-based teacher education program which is available on site to in-service teachers. The major portion of the coursework is accomplished through modularized units of education, liberal arts, and science curriculum offerings. Each modular unit stresses both academic preparation and in-the-classroom experience. Many modular units include video tape sessions, individual conferences with University staff, demonstration lessons, etc.

TUITION: Not specified

CREDIT: Not specified

CONTACT: Herbert J. Smith, College of Education, Idaho State University, Pocatello, Idaho 83201; 208-236-2689

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SPONSOR: Western States Small Schools Project (or, WSSSP--an organization formed by the five State Departments of Education of Arizona, Colorado, Nevada, New Mexico, and Utah)

LOCATION: Twelve fourth grade classrooms clustered in Colorado, New Mexico, and Utah

CONTENT: WSSSP's Staffing Plan for Upgrading Rural Schools (SPURS) is an experimental program expected to continue through 1975. The project has enabled the designated classrooms to adopt a differentiated staffing pattern composed of a curriculum development team (which operates across state lines), instructional design teams (which operate across school lines), and instructional technicians in each classroom. In addition, the model program provides for a trained principal and an advisory board for each cluster composed of district superintendents and classroom teacher representatives.

Special in-service programs were designed to prepare each person to assume his role in the SPURS model. The program, which covers a 2-year period, extensively uses on-the-job training.

TUITION: Not specified

CREDIT: Not specified

CONTACT: Rodney Anderson, Colorado Department of Education, Denver, Colorado

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ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools, New Mexico State University, Box 3AP, Las Cruces, New Mexico 88001; 505-646-2623.

Regional Laboratories such as

Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 500 Lindsay Building, 710 S.W. Second Avenue, Portland, Oregon 97204; 503-224-3650 and

Appalachia Educational Laboratory, P.O. Box 1348, Charleston, West Virginia 25325; 304-344-8371.

American Sociological Association, 1722 N Street N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036; 202-833-3410.

APPENDIX A: CONTEMPORARY RURAL AMERICAN AND ITS EDUCATION: A PICTURE OF NEGLECT[1]

RURAL AMERICA

The problems related to rural education are difficult to characterize because of the diversity found in rural America. Rural poverty is not always the root of the problems, because rural areas are not uniformly backward and economically deprived. The problems cannot be related exclusively to racial and cultural differences, despite a significant rural population of Indians, Chicanos, southern blacks, and low-income Caucasians. Nor are the rural residents' ideologies, attitudes, and orientations toward change and education uniformly different from the rest of society. Given such diversity, how is one to characterize the rural environment and related problems? Furthermore, what are the characteristics of rural schools?

First, and perhaps most significantly, rural can be characterized by the setting in which it occurs, i.e., it takes place in villages, towns, and surrounding countrysides which have small and/or dispersed populations, absence or deficiency of many public facilities and services, relatively weak governmental structures, a scarcity of local leadership and expertise, little local control over media, and a conservative attitude about change.[2]

Secondly, job opportunities in rural areas are, at best, scarce. While some persons are able to commute to nonrural jobs, many families have had to leave their rural residences to find employment. In addition, most graduates of rural schools must go elsewhere for education and job opportunities.[3]

A third major factor is that many of the major decisions which affect rural communities are made beyond the village or county boundaries by agencies whose policies and procedures are developed on a regional, state, or national level, but whose programs have penetrated rural communities. Even when one or more local individuals control some of the power, change is slow to occur. The unusual overlap in life spaces within a small community generates pressure to remain within the economic and social norms created by everyone knowing everyone else. This, too, often results in

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[1]Excerpted by Chester Hausken from the Introduction to Rural Education Program: Basic Program Plans (Portland, Ore.: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, April 1972).

[2]President's National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty, The People Left Behind (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1967).

[3]Ibid.

acquiescence to the wishes of a few powerful persons.[4]

Thus, the problems of rural education derive their uniqueness from the characteristics of the environment in which it operates. Another set of characteristics, related specifically to education, clearly differentiate rural education from nonrural education.

- School enrollments are small
- Student backgrounds, interests, and abilities are widely diverse
- Curriculum alternatives in the schools are limited
- Career development opportunities within the schools and communities are narrow
- The most readily available learning resources are related to agriculture, mining, and lumbering and the out-of-doors
- The life space of students, educators, and citizens has considerable and frequent overlap
- The school system is limited in size of staff, support services, student enrollment, and total budget, even though it is often large in geographical size
- The school system is a relatively insignificant and often ignored subsection of a much larger educational decision-making system that includes intermediate districts, state education agencies, and the U.S. Office of Education
- Citizens, educators, and students have little opportunity and few channels for influencing the school's curriculum policies, instructional practice, and operating procedures

Operating within these problems and limitations, and without adequate resources or training to capitalize upon the potential strengths of smallness, large numbers of rural students have received and are now receiving an ineffective and inappropriate education.

Following is a description of the rural setting and an analysis of existing conditions affecting rural education. Subsequent sections of this publication contain proposed models to move one aspect of rural education, in-service teacher education, from where it is toward where it has the potential to be.

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[4]Larry W. Hughes and Dolphus L. Spence, "Attitudes and Orientations of Rural Groups and Effects on Educational Decision-Making and Innovation in Rural School Districts" (Las Cruces, N. Mex.: New Mexico State University, July 1971).

THE RURAL SETTING

More than one of every four Americans--26.5 percent, or 54 million--lived in rural areas in 1970.[5] This reason alone warrants national concern for educational deficiencies in rural areas.

However, rural students are rarely perceived as comprising a significant target for improvement efforts. Some educators even proclaim that a rural education problem just does not exist. Denial of the problem is partly the result of consolidation and the decline in farm population, which have eliminated the one-room school and made high school education available. Despite the well publicized decline in population, recent statistics show that rural America should not--and literally cannot--be ignored.

> Although declining, its total population still exceeds the combined population of America's 100 largest cities. It is large enough so that rural America may be classified as the world's ninth largest country (only China, India, U.S.S.R., U.S., Japan, Indonesia, Pakistan and Brazil have total populations that exceed the rural population of the U.S.). No country in Europe, and only one in Latin America (Brazil) has a total population that exceeds the size of America's rural population.[6]

How dispersed is the rural population?

> The accepted minimum measurement of an urban environment is a population density of 1,000 or more per square mile. The measure of suburbanization is a population of 500 per square mile. Approximately one-third of the states, 17, to be exact, do not contain a single county with a population density of 500 persons per square mile. Twenty-three states have a population density of less than 50 persons per square mile, and 37 states have a density of less than 100 persons per square mile.[7]

What is the meaning of, and, significance of "rural"?

> Rural, furthermore, means an important segment of our nation's population--one third. It is a segment that is not decreasing in proportionate size, despite the

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[5]U.S. Bureau of the Census, Report on General Social and Economic Characteristics, 1970 Census of Population (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1971).
[6]Gordon Swanson, "The Myth of Urbanism," Rural Education News, 22;March 1970.
[7]Ibid.

> alleged urbanization of our society. It is a segment that tends to be overlooked in these times of preoccupation with urban crises.
>
> Although solving urban problems in our country should have top priority, the severity and magnitude of similar problems in the development of human resource and in the provision of basic services and facilities are no less important in rural areas. The importance is for rural living itself, not just because rural areas contribute so many undereducated, unskilled migrants to urban areas.
>
> Rural means people. It includes farmers, but it also includes men and women following every occupation known who choose to live beyond city limits in housing subdivisions, in towns and in the open country. It means people with a strong desire for privacy, living space and self-reliance. It means people with a pride in home and family. It means people looking for opportunity who have left the country for the city. Rural means America, our history and much of our dreams.
>
> Thus, the rural distinction is important because it represents so much of what America has been as well as what it hopes to be. Rural means life at a scale that is comprehensive to the individual. It is important that we preserve and strengthen this option.[8]

Students in rural schools have many similarities to their urban counterparts, but they also maintain important differences. Kuvlesky[9] suggests that rural and urban youth alike tend to be imbued with the success ethic. Generally, they want more than their parents in social rank, material possessions, and life chances. They usually want to abandon the rural scene and take up residence in the cities to seek higher status jobs than those held by their parents. To make these gains, they realize that high school education and, perhaps, additional education are imperative.

The student population in most rural schools is more heterogeneous in background, attitude, values, and aspiration levels than urban students. Sitting next to each other in a classroom may be the sons of

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[8] Ibid.

[9] William P. Kuvlesky, "Rural Youth: Current Status and Prognosis," Youth in Contemporary Society, 1972.

both wealthy farmers and the day laborers they employ. Cultural and social differences are added to the economic ones when a mixture of races is present. Rural students have been traditionally more socially and politically conservative, although this distinction is lessening. They also have more often chosen vocational training for any post-high school work.

While rural youth spend less time in school--legitimately or otherwise--and more often drop out of school than urban students, they also spend more time in working at jobs during the regular academic year and vacation time. According to Polk,[10] rural teenagers are more often charged with committing acts of "general misconduct" than with "serious offenses." Nonetheless, they run a greater risk of being subjected to adult jurisprudential treatment and going to jail with adult criminals. They tend to compare less favorably with urban students on characteristics such as self-image, self-assurance, self-adjustment, personality adjustment, and level of anxiety. Burchinal[11] argues that the greatest problems faced by rural youth as they seek their primary goals is attributable to their circumstances of disadvantage and the resulting dislocations in terms of personality, social relations, and underdeveloped abilities. The environment of the rural school and community is seen as too stringent, too structured, and too narrowly focused to allow a widely diverse student body to develop its broad range of individual talents, abilities, and aspirations.

THE PRESENT CONDITIONS

Since rural students frequently depend upon those educational opportunities available to them in local schools for their total exposure to formal learning, it is doubly important to make this experience effective and appropriate. The potential strengths and advantages of the rural environment must be capitalized upon if the school systems hope to turn limitations to assets. Small schools, sparse population density, and remoteness from urban pressures must be valued, not vilified, for rural education can incubate clarity, perspective, and humane concern.

Institutional inertia has persisted, however, and resistance to change continues as a pervading characteristic of the American educational system, not alone in rural schools. A study by the Stanford Research Institute[12] states, "One of the most critical problems which confronts the field of education today is that of translating research results into practice."

10K. Polk, "An Exploration of Rural Juvenile Delinquincy, "Rural Youth in Crisis:Facts, Myths and Social Change, ed. Lee G. Burchinal (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development, 1965).

11Lee G. Burchinal, Rural Youth in Crisis: Facts, Myths, and Social Change, ed. Lee G. Burchinal (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development, 1965.

12M. H. Chorress and others, Decision Process and Information Needs in Education: A Field Survey (Menlo Park, Calif.: Stanford Research Institute, 1969).

Despite recent infusions of federal money, there is ample evidence that a gap between what is known and what is done in education does exist, and the gap does not appear to be narrowing.

Studies indicate a considerable time lag between research and classroom application. A congressional subcommittee recently found that it takes 30 years before an innovation in education has widespread adoption and 10 to 15 years for even the first 3 percent of the schools to make significant changes.[13] At the same time, innovations in medicine are usually adopted in about 2 years. Goodlad, Cunningham, Brickell, and Goldhammer[14] have all developed the thesis that change in our schools comes very slowly, even reluctantly, and at a very uneven rate. Even in those schools reputed to have new and innovative programs, closer examination reveals that many changes are more publicized than real. Goodlad has pointed out that despite outward signs, major changes in what happens between the teacher and student are almost nonexistent.

The gap between what we do and what we know how to do seems even more pronounced and critical in small, rural schools than it does in the educational system as a whole. Several studies have pointed out the fact that rural schools generally are less adaptable and less responsive to change than are other schools.[15] A national survey of accredited high schools recently found that small schools and rural schools were less secure with innovation and more hesitant to change than their larger and better-equipped counterparts.[16]

As a result of this inability to launch a much-needed rural educational renaissance, the children and youth of rural America are not receiving the quality of education that is their legacy. The President's National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty reported

> Rural adults and youth are the product of an educational system that has historically short-changed rural people. The extent to which rural people have been denied equality of educational opportunity is evident from both the products of the education and the resources that go into the system. On both counts the quality of rural education ranks low.[17]

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[13]"Electric Company's Parks Reading Gains," Education Daily, February 18, 1972.
[14]Edgar L. Morphet and David L. Jesser, eds., Designing Education for the Future, No. 4 (New York: Citation Press, 1968).
[15]Everett M. Rogers, Diffusion of Innovations (New York: Free Press 1962).
[16]Gordon Cawelti, "Innovative Practices in High Schools: Who Does What--And Why--and How," Nation's Schools, 79;April 1967.
[17]President's National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty, 1967.

The problem becomes more clear as we examine it in each of four different contexts: at the level of community participation, at the level of the school as an institution, at the level of the learning environment, and at the level of services provided by regional or state support agencies.

We could look at the conditions that frequently prevail in the rural community, and at some of the factors that affect citizen participation, the school as an institution, the learning environment, or the support agency services. The intent of this publication is more related to the latter, so a brief description of some of these factors appears appropriate.

SUPPORT AGENCY SERVICES

Rural school systems rarely get the help they need to initiate and implement planned innovations that solve critical and local educational problems. Because rural school systems are small, they lack the capability of engaging in sophisticated planning, curriculum development, and staff training. Unlike their large urban counterparts, rural districts are not self-contained. They must rely upon outside agencies or their own cooperative alliances to secure many of the services needed to support local development.

The help that agencies such as state education agencies, intermediate districts, and teacher training institutions, have been providing rural school districts has been insufficient, duplicated, or overly prescriptive and in many instances inappropriate to the size and unique characteristics of the local system's needs.[18] For example, in-service training for rural teachers and administrators mostly consists of preprogrammed college courses; since a minimum number of enrollees is required to make the course economically feasible, many of those persuaded to take a particular course have no pressing need for its substance. Also, universities and colleges are generally charged with the responsibility for recruiting and training potential teacher candidates. They have the added responsibility for either directly accrediting their graduates or recommending that the state do so instead. By defining the criteria for admittance to teacher education programs and by determining what training experiences and competencies are required for certification, the universities and colleges handicap rural school systems in their approach to change by maintaining a monopolistic control over both the population that is authorized to teach young people and the ideas they bring with them into the classroom.

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[18]Edgar L. Morphet and David L. Jesser, eds., Emerging State Responsibilities for Education (Denver, Colo.: Improving State Leadership in Education, 1971).

State agencies have been handicapped in providing leadership and services to rural districts by their traditional regulatory inspection role. Special attention to rural districts has been required because these small districts have difficulty meeting even the minimum teacher certification, building code, and course offering standards espoused by state agencies. Further, because rural districts generally have no curriculum specialists on their staffs, state agency curriculum and instruction specialists are unable to perform as consultants. State specialists are expected to, and often act as though they do, have the answers to how teachers and administrators "ought" to behave and what the school program "ought" to be like.[19] Such prescription not only negates the phenomenon of constant change, it also seriously impedes the process.

Intermediate districts, as they have been formed in more and more rural areas each year, have tended to fall into one of two patterns: they either function as regional extensions of the state education agencies or as cooperatives of a cluster of local school systems. In either event, these "new" rural education agencies have not moved in the direction of providing the kind of leadership and service that would encourage and support enhanced capacity, an increased productivity, and a greater initiative at the local district level. As a result, the capability of rural school districts to remain autonomous, self-renewing strongholds of local control and initiative has clearly and continuously deteriorated.[20]

CONCLUSION

This, then, has been a review of some of the existing conditions that have tended to shortchange rural students in their education and act as deterrants to efforts to introduce educational improvements into rural communities and rural school systems. Fortunately, rural communities, rural schools, and rural people have the potential for overcoming these obstacles and capitalizing upon the inherent strengths associated with ruralness. An increasing number of rural residents--citizens, politicians and educators--are showing interest in becoming a part of a rural renaissance. What, then, is the potential for improvement?

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[19]Charles S. Benson and James W. Guthrie, An Essay on Federal Incentives and Local and State Educational Initiative (Berkeley, Calif.: University of California at Berkeley, 1968).

[20]Robert M. Isenberg, "States Continuing to Reorganize Their Intermediate Units," Planning and Changing: A Journey for School Administrators, 2;July 1971.

APPENDIX B: THE ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL CONDITION OF RURAL AMERICA IN THE 1970'S[1]

This report is concerned with the distribution of Federal outlays within the United States in fiscal year 1970. The data for this analysis were previously compiled for the Executive Office of the President by the Office of Economic Opportunity through its Federal Information Exchange System. The information, representing outlays at the county level for all major Federal programs, offers a unique opportunity to study the geographic distribution of Federal outlays and the effects of this distribution on economic development. It provides a good basis for making inferences concerning needed changes in the geographic distribution of Federal outlays to assure equal access to government services and to promote future population redistribution.

Selected Federal programs (242 programs comprising 74.7 percent of all Federal outlays) form the basis for the analysis. The 242 Federal programs were divided into four program categories:

(1) *Human Resource Development*---consisting of programs in income maintenance (social security, welfare, etc.), education, vocational rehabilitation, health services, employment opportunities and manpower training and development, and programs for American Indians;

(2) *Community Development*--comprised of programs in urban renewal, health service construction, development loans and grants, housing loans, and transportation;

(3) *Agriculture and Natural Resources*---consisting of direct payments to farmers, conservation programs, and farm loan programs of the Department of Agriculture and the parks and forest programs of the Interior Department; and

(4) *Defense, NASA, and AEC*--consisting of all programs of the Department of Defense, the National Aeronautical and Space Administration, and the Atomic Energy Commission.

Counties were divided according to metropolitan status, as defined by the Office of Management and Budget, and urban orientation. The latter classification divides counties into six categories on the basis of population density and the percent of the population living in urban places (places over 2,500).

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[1]U.S. Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service, Economic Development Division, "Summary and Conclusions," The Economic and Social Condition of Rural America in the 1970's (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1971), pp. XI-XIII.

Though comparisons of per capita Federal outlays among groups of counties with similar characteristics were used extensively in this report, equal per capita Federal outlays among county groups does not necessarily mean that the people living in these counties receive the same quality of service. Particularly in low income, low density, rural counties per capita Federal outlays may need to be higher than in high income, densely settled urban counties because of: (1) the limited ability of low income counties to raise State and local monies to finance government services, (2) the inability of more sparsely settled counties to achieve economies of scale (lower cost per person) in providing comparable government services, and (3) the frequent need for more capital investment, on a per capita basis, to compensate for past inequities.

The results reported here are from an exploratory analysis of the data. Further studies now being planned will benefit from the experience gained in making this anaylsis and the refinements suggested by it. Nonetheless, we have learned enough from this initial study to draw the following conclusions:

(1) *Nonmetropolitan residents do not share proportionately in the distribution of outlays of many Federal programs.* Overall, nonmetropolitan areas receive about 27 percent of all outlays, though they account for 30 percent of the total population. But more important than the slight aggregate disparity, is the extent to which nonmetropolitan areas fail to share proportionately in the benefits of specific programs.

Federal spending for human resources, for example, has greatly favored metropolitan counties. This is illustrated by the following comparisons for counties experiencing pronounced population declines: (a) per capita Federal welfare payments were roughly four times greater in metropolitan than in nonmetropolitan counties, *(b)* per capita outlays for health services were four times greater in metropolitan counties, and *(c)* per capita Federal outlays for manpower training and development were three times greater in metropolitan counties. Despite a greater incidence of substandard housing in nonmetropolitan counties. Per capita Federal housing outlays there were only half as large as in metropolitan counties. While nonmetropolitan counties accounted for two-thirds of all substandard housing units in 1968, they received only 16 percent of all housing assistance.

The distribution of program funds for low income families with children is particularly disparate. Though nonmetropolitan areas account for about half of all children between the ages of 6 to 17 years in families with income below the poverty level, these areas received only 41 percent of the outlays for Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, 36 percent of Headstart and Headstart Follow Through, 24 percent of Aid to Families With Dependent Children, and 20 percent of all Child Welfare Services funds.

(2) *Federal outlays for Defense, NASA, and AEC far overshadow outlays for the other program categories and heavily favor the larger, higher income urban areas.* Outlays for these programs account for nearly half (42 percent) of all outlays examined. And, over $8 of every $10 spent for these programs went to metropolitan areas, leaving them with a per capita figure twice that of the nonmetropolitan counties. In the highly urban areas, per capita defense outlays were highest where population was declining fastest while in the less urbanized places higher defense outlays were associated with higher rates of population growth. Though this analysis did not seek to identify direct causal relationships between Federal program outlays and regional development, the association of nonmetropolitan population growth with higher defense outlays is as suggestive of causation as any found in the study.

(3) *In the absence of a unified national development policy, programs narrow in scope and limited in objective are failing to effectively meet this country's development needs.* Though sparsely populated rural areas clearly have pressing human resource needs, as mentioned above, they receive a disproportionately small share of the available assistance. However, these same areas have received a significant large share of development loans (mainly for water and sewer systems, electrification, and telephones). In the long-term interest of both metro and nonmetropolitan growth, a distribution that provides a more equitable input of human resource assistance and development loans is suggested.

(4) *Federal outlays for agriculture and natural resources tend to be concentrated in nonmetropolitan counties with pronounced population declines but comparatively high per capita incomes.* On a per capita basis, such outlays were *(a)* twice as great in high income nonmetropolitan counties as in their low income counterparts and *(b)* over four times as great in counties with pronounced population declines as in fast-growing counties.

A serious reappraisal of the existing distribution of Federal outlays and the reasons for that distribution would seem necessary if we are to insure the equitable distribution of government services among all Americans and, at the same time, effectively use these programs to promote area and regional development. Those programs which would appear to have particular promise for bringing about the desired results are in the areas of: *(a)* housing, *(b)* health services, *(c)* manpower training and development, and *(d)* defense contracts and payrolls.

APPENDIX C

EXCERPTS from "A Proposal To Produce a Guidebook to Remote In-Service Teacher Education Programs in Rural Areas Which Will Include Descriptions of One or More Prototype Programs." Submitted to Central ERIC, U.S. Office of Education, November 15, 1971 (funded March 1972).

PROJECT DESCRIPTION

As a guidebook to remote in-service teacher education programs in rural areas, the proposed publication will (a) list and describe in detail all operational programs which the Clearinghouse can identify in this area, (b) synthesize information about the cost of the programs and the logistics of introducing them into rural schools, and (c) develop descriptions of one or more prototype programs.

STATEMENT OF NEED

Teachers in rural areas are often isolated from teacher training centers and universities which offer instruction in such areas as teaching methodology and curriculum development. The guidebook would facilitate the in-service education of rural teachers by informing in-service teacher educators, school boards, school administrators, local chapters of teacher associations, and the teachers themselves of currently operating remote in-service teacher education programs. The advantages of enrolling in in-service courses at a university or teacher training center rather than in a school district are obvious: first, most districts do not have the resources to match the variety and quality of programs offered by the former; and secondly, at the present time school districts typically do not award credit towards certification. There is also a need to provide administrators with information that will facilitate the implementation of programs. Towards this end, the proposed publication will provide the name of a contact person for each program in operation; synthesize important practical information, such as cost; and offer prototypes which cooperating universities and schools can adapt to their own needs.

AUDIENCE

The audience ultimately benefiting from the proposed publication will be pupils and teachers in rural schools in the United States. However, the target audience is composed of those persons concerned with implementing in-service teacher education in rural areas, such as teacher educators, school administrators, and school boards. Local and state chapters of teacher associations will also be made aware of the publication so that they can improve their catalyst roles in in-service teacher education.

ANTICIPATED IMPACT

For the first time, rural administrators and school boards will have a directory to in-service teacher education programs which are specifically adapted to the needs of their teachers; that is, programs which are designed to train teachers at local schools and not at universities. The proposed

publication should prompt administrators or school boards to introduce programs listed in the directory into their school systems or to collaborate with universities in developing new programs based on the prototypes. The guidebook encourages the actual adoption of prog[illegible]cluding the names of people who can be contacted for more detai[illegible], addressing itself to administrators' concerns in such areas as the acceptance of change in rural communities and program cost. The proposed publication also encourages the adoption of programs by directing itself to local chapters of teacher associations who have been active in teacher improvement.

ABOUT ERIC

The Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) forms a nationwide information system established by the U.S. Office of Education, designed to serve and advance American education. Its basic objective is to provide ideas and information on significant current documents (e.g., research reports, articles, theoretical papers, program descriptions, published and unpublished conference papers, newsletters, and curriculum guides or studies) and to publicize the availability of such documents. Central ERIC is the term given to the function of the U.S. Office of Education, which provides policy, coordination, training funds, and general services to 18 clearinghouses in the information system. Each clearinghouse focuses its activities on a separate subject-matter area; acquires, evaluates, abstracts, and indexes documents; processes many significant documents into the ERIC system; and publicizes available ideas and information to the education community through its own publications, those of Central ERIC, and other educational media.

TEACHER EDUCATION AND ERIC

The ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education, established June 20, 1968, is sponsored by three professional groups--the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (fiscal agent); the Association of Teacher Educators, a national affiliate of the National Education Association; and Instruction and Professional Development, National Education Association. It is located at One Dupont Circle, Washington, D.C. 20036.

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